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PUSA

RECORDS
OF
THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA

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CALCUTTA: GOVERNMENT OF INDIA
CENTRAL PUBLICATION BRANCH
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„ 2.—(G. S. I. Reg. No. 3421).—The same, seen from the left. Half size.

„ 3.—(G. S. I. Reg. No. 3420).—The same, seen from the rear. Half size.

„ 4.—(G. S. I. Reg. No. 3417).—Abactinal view of the same specimen. Half size.

„ 5.—(G. S. I. Reg. 3419).—Actinal view of another specimen. Half size.

„ 6.—(G. S. I. Reg. No. 1252).—Actinal view of a young specimen. Half size.

PLATE 26.—Fig. 1.—(G. S. I. Reg. No. 3418).—Abactinal view of another specimen to show shape of apical disc. Magnified $\frac{1}{2}$.

PLATE 26.—Fig. 2.—(G. S. I. Reg. No. 1253).—Abactinal view of another specimen to show imperforate rims round genital pores. Nat. size.

„ 3.—(G. S. I. Reg. 3425).—*Conoclypeus warthi*. Longitudinal profile of the test, seen from the right. Half size.

„ 4.—(G. S. I. Reg. No. 3426).—The same, seen from the rear. Half size.

„ 5.—(G. S. I. Reg. No. 3424).—Abactinal view of the same. Half size.

„ 6.—(G. S. I. Reg. No. 3423).—Actinal view of the same. Half size.

PLATE 27.—Map showing the Occurrence of Low-Phosphorus Coal in the Giridih-Coal-Field.

CORRECTIONS.

Page 118. 3rd para., 4th line, for 'Sowerbyi' read 'sowerbyi.'

Page 121. Under (3) Table, for 'Dictyoconoides cooki, Carter' read 'Dictyoconoides cooki (Carter).'

Page 122. 2nd para., 1st line, for '(46)' read '(48).'

Page 125. 2nd para., 1st line, for 'Faraminifera' read 'Foraminifera.'

Page 127. Insert '(B)' before 'List of Foraminifera and Classification of Nummulites.'

Page 128. In list of species, for 'A. cancellata' read 'A. cancellata.'

Page 129. 4th and 6th lines, for '(see Nuttall 48)' read '(see Nuttall 47).'

Page 130. 7th line from base, for 'D'Archiac and Harpe' read 'D' Archiac and Haime, Harpe.'

Page 131. 2nd para., 3rd line, for 'Plate I, figure 5' read 'Plate I, figure 4.'

Page 133. 2nd para., 5th and 6th lines, for 'Nummulites vredenburgi' read 'Nummulites vredenburgi Prever.'

Page 134. 3rd. para., 1st line, for 'Marti' read 'Martin' and 5th para., 1st line, for '(Bruguière, sp.)' read '(Bruguière).'

Page 135. 4th para, 3rd line, for 'A. and Lister' read 'A. and H., Lister' and 4th line, for 'Brug,' read '(Brug).'

Page 136. 1st para, 3rd line, insert comma after 'Lamarck.'

Page 138. 4th para., 4th line, insert single brackets before and after 'de Mont.' and 5th line, insert single brackets before and after 'de Mont.' and after 'Dainelli' insert '(15c).'

Page 139. 2nd para., for '(21)' read '(21),' and last para., 3rd line for '(21)' read '(21).'

Page 140. 2nd para., 5th line, for 'Plate, fig. 6' read 'Plate 3, fig. 6.'

Page 143. 3rd para., 4th line, delete comma after 'D' Archiac.'

Page 152. 1st para., 1st line, delete '54'; 2nd para., 1st line, for '(1)' read '(2)' and last line but one, for '()' read '(p)'.
(1)

Page 156. Against item (25), 1st line, delete 'I'; against item (26), 2nd line, for 'Ist' read 'Ist.'

Page 157. Item (31), for 'Gümbel' read 'Günbel.'

Page 163. In explanation of Plate V, 5th line, for 'Fig:—5.3 miles' read 'Fig. 5 :—3 miles.'

Page 237, line 1. For 'Conulites-Dictyoconoides Nuttall' read 'Conulites (=Dictyoconoides, Nuttall).'

Page 249, line 12 from top. For 'first at' read 'at first.'

Plate 1. Fig. '5×6' should read '5×5'; also at foot of each plate for 'Nuttal' read 'Nuttall.'

Plate 19. Omit figures 11, 11a, 11b and 11c.

RECORDS

OF

THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

Part I]

1926.

[April.

GENERAL REPORT FOR 1925. BY E. H. PASCÔE, M.A.,
SC.D. (Cantab.), D.SC. (Lond.), F.G.S., F.A.S.B.,
Director, Geological Survey of India.

DISPOSITION LIST.

DURING the period under report the officers of the Department
were employed as follows :—

Superintendents.

DR. L. L. FERMOR . Returned from the field on the 3rd March 1925. Officiated as Director from 10th March to the 4th November 1925. Placed in charge of the Central Provinces and Central India Party and left for the field on the 19th November 1925.

DR. G. E. PILGRIM . Remained at headquarters and acted as Palæontologist up to the 13th March 1925. Placed in charge of the Punjab Party and left for the field on the 13th March. Returned from the field on the 16th June. Granted combined leave for one year and four months with effect from the 13th July 1925.

- MR. G. H. TIPPER . Continued in charge of office throughout the year and also acted as Palæontologist with effect from the 14th March 1925.
- DR. G. DE P. COTTER . Returned from leave on the 14th December 1925. Placed in charge of the North-West India Party.
- DR. J. COGGIN BROWN . Returned from leave on the 17th October 1925. Placed in charge of the Burma Party and left for Burma on the 8th November 1925.
- MR. H. CECIL JONES . Returned from the field on the 14th April 1925. Granted leave on average pay for six months and seven days with effect from the 8th May. Returned from leave on the 16th November. Placed in charge of the Bihar and Orissa Party and left for the field on the 28th November 1925.

Assistant Superintendents.

- MR. H. WALKER . . On combined leave.
- MR. K. A. K. HALLOWES . On combined leave.
- DR. A. M. HERON . . Returned to headquarters from the field on the 7th May 1925. Placed in charge of the Rajputana Party and left for the field on the 9th November 1925.
- DR. C. S. FOX . . . Returned from the field on the 11th May 1925. Granted leave on average pay for four months and thirteen days with effect from the 9th June. Returned from leave and permitted to resume duty at Singareni on the 31st October. Inspected the Singareni coalfield and returned to headquarters on the 4th November. Placed in charge of the Coal-fields Party, and left for the field on the 11th November 1925.

- RAO BAHADUR S. SETHU RAMA RAU.** Returned to headquarters from field-work in Burma on the 26th June 1925. Attached to the Coal-fields Party in connection with the re-examination of the Rani-ganj coalfield. Left for the field on the 13th November 1925.
- RAO BAHADUR M. VINAYAK RAO.** Returned to headquarters from field-work in the Madras Presidency on the 12th April 1925. Deputed to investigate the alleged occurrence of coal at Kamasamudram in Mysore State. Left for the field on the 27th May and returned to headquarters on the 24th July. Detailed for the investigation of the manganese and kaolin deposits in the Kanara district of the Bombay Presidency and for the continuance of the geological survey of the districts of Salem and North Arcot in the Madras Presidency. Left for the field on the 2nd November 1925.
- MR. H. CROOKSHANK .** Returned to headquarters from the field on the 5th May 1925. Attached to the Central Provinces and Central India Party to continue the geological survey of the Chhindwara district. Left for the field on the 22nd October 1925.
- MR. E. L. G. CLEGG .** Placed in charge of the Burma Party till the arrival of Dr. J. Coggin Brown on the 11th November 1925, and thereafter attached to that Party.
- MR. D. N. WADIA .** Attached to the North-West India Party. Left for the field on the 6th October 1925.
- MR. G. V. HOBSON .** At headquarters as Curator of the Geological Museum and Laboratory.

- CAPT. F. W. WALKER . Attached to the Burma Party. Killed on the 20th March 1925.
- MR. J. A. DUNN . . Returned to headquarters from his field-work in Bihar and Orissa on the 11th May 1925. Deputed to examine the Khewra salt-mine hill in the Punjab with a view to preparing a geological map of the area and thereafter to investigate the occurrence of aluminous refractory materials in Assam, Bihar and Orissa and Central India. Left for the field on the 18th October 1925.
- MR. A. L. COULSON . Returned from the field on the 15th June 1925. Attached to the Rajputana Party to continue the geological survey of the Sirohi State. Left for the field on the 27th October 1925.
- MR. E. J. BRADSHAW . Returned from field-work in Rajputana on the 13th May 1925. Left headquarters on the 17th July to inspect a fossil tree at Asansol and returned on the following day. Deputed to examine building sites at Bakloh Cantonment and also to report on the deep tube-well boring at Ambala Cantonment. Thereafter attached to the Rajputana Party to continue the geological survey of the Mewar State. Left for the field on the 3rd November 1925.
- MR. C. T. BARBER . Returned to headquarters from field-work in Burma on the 25th June 1925. Attached to the Burma Party and left for the field on the 8th September 1925.

- MR. E. R. GEE . Deputed to inspect the landslips of the Kalimpong Division, Bengal. Left for the field on the 9th May and returned to headquarters on the 5th July 1925. Attached to the Coal-fields Party. Left for the field on the 9th November 1925.
- MR. W. D. WEST . Returned from the field on the 1st July 1925. Attached to the Central Provinces and Central India Party. Left for the field on the 16th November 1925.
- MR. A. K. BANERJI . Returned from the field on the 9th May 1925. Attached to the Coal-fields Party. Left for the field on the 7th November 1925.
- DR. M. S. KRISHNAN . Returned from the field on the 7th May 1925. Attached to the Bihar and Orissa Party; left for the field on the 2nd November 1925.
- MR. P. LEICESTER . Appointed Assistant Superintendent, Geological Survey of India; joined the Department on the 5th December 1925. Attached to the Burma Party. Left for the field on the 15th December 1925.
- DR. S. K. CHATTERJEE Appointed Assistant Superintendent, Geological Survey of India; joined the Department on the 3rd December 1925. Attached to the Rajputana Party. Left for the field on the 21st December.

Chemist.

DR. W. A. K. CHRISTIE At headquarters.

Artist.

Mr. K. F. WATKINSON . At headquarters.

Sub-Assistants.

MR. B. B. GUPTA . Returned to headquarters for recess from field-work in Burma on the 4th September 1925. Attached to the Burma Party and left for the field on the 9th November 1925.

MR. D. S. BHATTA- Returned to headquarters from field-work
CHARJI. in the Central Provinces on the 26th April 1925. Granted leave on average pay from the 12th August to the 5th September 1925. Attached to the Central Provinces and Central India Party. Left for the field on the 18th November 1925.

MR. B. C. GUPTA . Returned to headquarters from field-work in Rajputana on the 3rd May 1925. Attached to the Rajputana Party and left for the field on the 9th November 1925.

MR. H. M. LAHIRI . Attached to the North-West India Party and left for the field on the 18th November 1925.

MR. L. A. NARAYANA Returned to headquarters from field-work
IYER. in Bihar and Orissa on the 23rd April 1925. Attached to the Bihar and Orissa Party and left for the field on the 4th November 1925.

MR. P. N. MUKERJEE. At headquarters.

Assistant Curator.

MR. P. C. ROY . . . At headquarters.

The cadre of the Department continued to be 6 Superintendents, 22 Assistant Superintendents and one Chemist. Of the four vacancies in the grade of Assistant Superintendent including the one caused by the death of Captain F. W. Walker two were filled during the year, leaving at the end of the year two vacancies.

ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES.

Dr. L. L. Fermor was appointed to officiate as Director from the 10th March 1925, *vice* Dr. E. H. Pascoe, Promotions and Director, on leave, and reverted to his substantive appointments. appointment on the 5th November 1925, on the return of the latter.

Dr. A. M. Heron continued to officiate as Superintendent up to the 13th December 1925, *vice* Dr. G. de P. Cotter on leave; he was again appointed to officiate as Superintendent from the 14th December 1925, *vice* Dr. G. E. Pilgrim on leave.

Dr. C. S. Fox was appointed to officiate as Superintendent up to the 16th October 1925, *vice* Dr. J. Coggin Brown on leave and from the 17th October to the 13th December 1925, *vice* Dr. G. E. Pilgrim on leave.

Mr. E. L. G. Clegg was appointed to officiate as Superintendent up to the 4th November 1925, *vice* Dr. L. L. Fermor officiating as Director, and from the 5th to the 10th November 1925, *vice* Mr. H. C. Jones on leave.

Mr. G. V. Hobson continued to act as Curator, Geological Museum and Laboratory.

Dr. G. E. Pilgrim acted as Palæontologist till the 13th March 1925 when he was relieved by Mr. G. H. Tipper.

Messrs. E. J. Bradshaw, E. R. Gee and W. D. West have been confirmed in their appointments as Assistant Superintendents.

The following officers joined the Department during the year :—

Mr. P. Leicester, B.A. (Oxon.); appointed Assistant Superintendent with effect from the 5th December 1925.

Dr. S. K. Chatterjee, M.Sc. (Cal.), Ph.D., D.I.C. (Lond.); appointed Assistant Superintendent with effect from the 3rd December 1925.

Leave.

Dr. E. H. Pascoe was granted leave on average pay for eight months with effect from the 10th March 1925.

Dr. G. E. Pilgrim was granted combined leave for one year and four months with effect from the 13th July 1925.

Mr. H. C. Jones was granted leave on average pay for six months and seven days with effect from the 8th May 1925.

Dr. C. S. Fox was granted leave on average pay for four months and thirteen days with effect from the 19th June 1925.

Mr. D. Bhattacharji was granted leave on average pay for twenty-five days with effect from the 12th August 1925.

LECTURESHIP.

Mr. D. N. Wadia continued as Lecturer on Geology at the Presidency College, Calcutta, till the 22nd June 1925 when he was relieved by Mr. G. V. Hobson.

POPULAR LECTURES.

Popular lectures were delivered in the Indian Museum during the year, the subjects selected being as follows :—

- (1) "Soda in India" by Dr. W. A. K. Christie.
- (2) "Roads and Road Metals" by Mr. A. L. Coulson.
- (3) "Indian Plateau Basalts" by Mr. H. Crookshank.
- (4) "The Origin of the Continents" by Dr. A. M. Heron.
- (5) "The Formation of Mountain Ranges" by Dr. A. M. Heron.

LIBRARY.

The additions to the library amounted to 4,577 volumes of which 1,140 were acquired by purchase and 3,437 by presentation and exchange.

PUBLICATIONS.

The following publications were issued during the year under report :—

- Records, Vol. LVI, part 3,
- Records, Vol. LVII,

Records, Vol. LVIII, parts 1, 2 and 3,
 Memoirs, Vol. XXI, part 3 (reprinted),
 Memoirs, Vol. XLVIII, part 2,
 Memoirs, Vol. I, part 1,
 Palæontologia Indica, New Series, Vol. VI, Memoir No. 4,
 Palæontologia Indica, New Series, Vol. VIII, Memoirs Nos. 2
 and 3.

MUSEUM AND LABORATORY.

Mr. G. V. Hobson was Curator of the Geological Museum and Laboratory throughout the year under report. Babu Purna Chandra Roy retained the Assistant Curatorship and Babus Austin Manindranath Ghosh and Dasarathi Gupta fulfilled the duties of Museum Assistants during the period under review.

Dr. W. A. K. Christie, Chemist, remained at headquarters throughout the year and was chiefly engaged in the routine work of the laboratories. He published a paper on zeolites from Bombay, another on the chemical denudation of the Indus and a third on an occurrence of ammonium fluosilicate (cryptohalite) are under preparation.

The number of specimens referred to the Curator for examination and report was 789. Assays and analyses were made of 70 specimens. The corresponding figures for 1924 were 574 and 35, respectively. The specimens analysed were largely coals, whose calorific value was determined by the Bomb Calorimeter, but included manganese ores, bauxite, graphite, celadonite, chlorophæite, galena, lead slags, auriferous jamesonite, gypsum and marbles.

During the year under review presentations of geological specimens were made to the following :—

- (1) The Bengal Technical Institute, Dhakuria, 24-Parganas.
- (2) Mr. H. J. Winch, Manager Shivrajpur Syndicate Ltd., Panch Mahals, Bombay.
- (3) Church Missionary School, Srinagar, Kashmir
- (4) The Museum, Jaipur, Rajputana.
- (5) Central College, Bangalore.
- (6) Uttarpara College, Bengal.

- (7) Zurich University; Switzerland.
- (8) Oriental Seminary, Calcutta.
- (9) Muslim University, Aligarh.
- (10) Direccion Estudios Biologicas; Mexico.

In addition to the above general presentations the following specific donations were made :—

- (1) Specimens of bauxite to Mr. T. V. Madhava Rao, Imperial College of Science and Technology, London.
- (2) Pitchblende, monazite, cyrtolite and samarskite to the Geo-Physical Laboratory, Washington, U.S.A.
- (3) Specimen of lazulite-clinozoisite-quartzite with ilmenite and rutile to Professor Tilley, Sedgewick Museum, Cambridge.
- (4) Specimen of gyrolite to the Australian Museum, Sydney.

The collections received back from the British Empire Exhibition at the end of last year have been returned to the Geological Survey galleries during the year.

Additions to the General Collections.

In addition to the large number of rock and mineral specimens collected by members of the Department, the following have been received and included in the collections during the year :—

Specimens received.

- (1) Briquette of Indian lignite. Presented by Commander Heneage.
- (2) Malacon, ilmenorutile, betafite, ampingabeite with columbite, samarskite, euxenite, thortveitite tscheffkinite and bastnæs-site; all from Madagascar. Presented by the *Muséum National d'Histoire naturelle*, Paris.
- (3) Cinnabar, galena, stibnite, copper ore and native silver; from Mexico. By exchange with the Direccion Estudios Biologicas, Mexico.
- (4) A large and interesting collection of mica originally sent to the British Empire Exhibition, now received back and not previously acknowledged. Presented by Messrs. F. F. Chrestien & Co., Ltd., Domchanch, Kodarma; Bihar and Orissa.
- (5) Materials used in the production of Ferro-tungsten, originally sent to the British Empire Exhibition, now received back and not previously acknowledged. Presented by the High Speed Steel Alloys Co., Ltd., Widnes; England.

- (6) Chrome briquette from Bangalore. Presented by Messrs Oakley, Duncan & Co., Ltd.
- (7) Hollandite from the Shivrajpur mine. Presented by Mr. H. J. Winch, Shivrajpur, Panch Mahals; Bombay.
- (8) Green mica from Tibet. Presented by H.E. the Tsarong Shape.
- (9) Copper ore, bauxite, barite, steatite, bentonite and zinc blende from Kashmir. Presented by Mr. C. S. Middlemiss.
- (10) A core of massive hæmatite from Jamda, Singhbhum district. Presented by Mr. F. G. Percival.
- (11) A block of salt with a cavity containing fluid from Shahpur, Punjab. Presented by Mr. J. C. Ferguson.
- (12) Pencil crystals of hollandite from Kachi Dhana, Chhindwara district. Presented by Major H. M. Hance.
- (13) Cassiterite in pegmatite from the Amherst district, Burma. Presented by Mr. S. H. Harman.
- (14) Pieces of sillimanite crucibles. Presented by Professor W. E. S. Turner, Sheffield.
- (15) Cryptohalite from Barari. Presented by Mr. R. G. M. Bathgate.
- (16) Green marble from Kharwa. Presented by the Rao Sahib of Kharwa.

During the period under review specimens of the following meteorites have been received from the British Meteorite Collection. Museum and included in our collections :—

Stony Meteorites.

- (1) Nakhla, Abu Hommos, Alexandria; Egypt.
- (2) Aumale, Alger; Algeria.

Iron Meteorites.

- (1) Dalton, Whitfield County, Georgia; United States of America.
- (2) Garhi Yasin, Shikarpur taluk, Sukker district, Bombay.
- (3) Bischtübe, Nikolæv, Turgai; Siberia.
- (4) Santa Catharina; Brazil.

The fall of a meteorite was reported to have occurred at Alam Bazar near Calcutta between 8-30 and 9 P.M. on the 14th December 1925, several villagers having testified to seeing an extremely bright flash of light cross from east to west and apparently fall at the above locality. So far the actual spot has not been located and efforts to recover any of the meteoric material have been unsuccessful.

The fossil tree which was transported to Calcutta from Asansol at the end of last year has been re-assembled and mounted on the

Fossil Tree. verandah outside the mineral gallery in the Museum. The tree was originally laid out as received and supported on wooden chocks. It was soon apparent that the alternate dryness and damp of the Calcutta climate would result in rapid deterioration; cracks developed between the chocks and the pieces threatened to collapse. A continuous cement pedestal was accordingly built under the tree from end to end. Each piece was fitted into place as accurately as possible and all cracks and joints pointed with Portland cement; the whole was then coated with transparent, waterproof varnish. In this way all strain has been taken off the fragments and it is hoped that the waterproof coating, renewed from time to time, will preserve the tree from the effects of the climate.

Burma Laboratory. During 1925, in the Burma Laboratory 42 specimens have been received and reported upon, of which 18 were quantitatively examined. The corresponding figures for 1924 were 45 and 3 respectively.

PALÆONTOLOGY.

Dr. G. E. Pilgrim continued to act as Palæontologist until he left for the field in March. Mr. G. H. Tipper then took over the duties of the post and continued to act for the remainder of the year.

During the year under review the following Memoirs have been published in the *Palæontologia Indica* :—

- (1) C. Forster Cooper : " Anthracotheriidae of the Dera Bugti deposits in Baluchistan " Memoir No. 2 of Vol. VIII of the New Series.
- (2) G. E. Pilgrim : " Perissodactyla of the Eocene of Burma " Memoir No. 3 of the same volume.

The first portion of the late Mr. E. W. Vredenburg's monograph on the Mollusca of the Post-Eocene deposits of North-Western India has appeared in *Memoirs*, Vol. L, part 1. The second portion is almost ready for issue. The delay is due to the unfortunate disorder in which the collections were left; this has now almost been rectified and most of the missing types have been traced. The following papers of palæontological interest have appeared in the *Records* :—

- (1) " A Fresh-water Fish from the Oil-measures of the Dawna hills," by the late Dr. N. Annandale and Dr. Sundar Lal Hora,

- (2) "On a fossil Ampullariid from Poonch, Kashmir," by Dr. B. Prashad.
- (3) "On a calcareous alga belonging to the Triploporellæ (Dasy-cladaceæ) from the Tertiary of India," by John Walton.
- (4) "Notes on Cretaceous Fossils from Afghanistan and Khorassan," by the late H. S. Bion.

In the last General Report reference was made to the work of Dr. G. E. Pilgrim on the fossil Suidæ of India. The description of them has been completed and is now almost ready for issue. With twenty plates it will form Memoir No. 4 of Volume VIII of the *Palaontologia Indica*, New Series. The same author also has in hand a description of the Siwalik Carnivora and Antelopes.

Before his lamented death in 1915 the late Mr. Bion had written a description of the fauna of the Agglomeratic Slates of the Kashmir valley. To this Mr. C. S. Middlemiss has now supplied an introduction. This paper, embodying an account of the fauna of one of the most interesting geological horizons in Kashmir, illustrated by eleven plates and a geological map, will be published in the *Palaontologia Indica*.

Dr. L. F. Spath has submitted two fasciculi of his revision of the Jurassic cephalopods of Kachh. In addition to Waagen's original types, he has in his hands a mass of very valuable material collected by Mr. J. H. Smith, and very kindly presented by that gentleman to the Geological Survey of India. The whole of Dr. Spath's work will finally form an authoritative account of a very rich collection.

Dr. Cowper Reed has described the numerous fossils from several horizons, Palæozoic and Mesozoic, collected by Dr. Coggin Brown during his journeys in Yunnan. A provisional list of these has already appeared in the *Records*, volume LV, part 4.

M. Henri Douvillé, to whom the collections from the *Cardita Beaumonti* beds originally sent to M. Cossmann were transferred, states that he has almost completed his descriptions. His account of the fauna of this well-known horizon of North-Western India is awaited with much interest, and will appear in the *Palaontologia Indica*. The same author has also prepared two short papers on some Cretaceous fossils collected by the late Mr. C. L. Griesbach from Herat and by the late Sir Henry H. Hayden from Chitral and Gilgit. These papers will shortly appear in the *Records*.

Major L. M. Davies has prepared two descriptive papers, the first dealing with two new species of the echinoid genus, *Conoclypeus*, and the second with the foraminiferal genus, *Conulites*, and some of its species.

These papers are the result of investigations, extending over a considerable period into the geology of the neighbourhood of Kohat and the Samana range. Foraminifers also form the subject of a paper by Mr. W. L. F. Nuttall, who writes on "the Zonal distribution and description of the larger foraminifera of the Middle and Lower Kirthar Series (Middle Eocene) of parts of Western India," giving stratigraphical details of the deposits, the distribution of the foraminifera, the age of the beds as determined from the larger foraminifera and palæontological descriptions. The paper appears in the present number of the *Records*.

For continued assistance in palæobotanical questions, the Department is indebted to Dr. B. Sahni, Professor of Botany in the University of Lucknow. He has examined the majority of the specimens of botanical interest submitted during the past year and is still engaged on undescribed material collected during recent years. In last year's report mention was made of the discovery of a fossil tree trunk of large size in beds of the Panchet stage near Asansol. This year another similar discovery has to be recorded. This new trunk is only fifty feet long and hence considerably shorter than the previous one; it is, however, of equal girth. The trunk has been brought to Calcutta. The Department is once again greatly indebted to the authorities of the East Indian Railway for their assistance in handling and transporting this large mass. Unfortunately the trunk is in a very broken condition and its restoration will require time and care. So far as can be judged from a cursory examination the tree belongs to the same genus, *Dadoxylon*, as that of the specimens discovered last year.

In general the fossils submitted for examination during the year were not of great interest, although some of them, *e.g.* foraminifera from oil borings, may entail considerable research.

Amongst the more noticeable specimens was a fossil egg discovered by Dr. N. L. Sheldon, Chief Inspector of Explosives in India, and an enthusiastic collector. This interesting object was found in a patch of soft sandy clay in the "Red Bed" of the Yenangyaung Oil-field, due west of the most northerly well of the Burmah Oil Company. Dr. Sheldon recognised the value of his find and was able to extract the whole patch which was brought to Calcutta. Luckily the sandy clay disintegrated readily in water and hence the shell fragments were easily obtained without further damage. The shell was badly broken but taking due regard of the curvature of the fragments, it has been possible to form a very fair reconstruction on a mould of plasticine, about two-thirds of the shell being preserved. The egg is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long by $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad and

is $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch thick and is flattened longitudinally. Mr. Tipper, who undertook the examination of the egg, finds that in appearance it is reptilian, but that none of the recent reptilian eggs with which it has been compared shows the flattening to the same extent; this flattening may be due to crushing. Sections of the shell show, according to Mr. Tipper, that the structure is distinctly reptilian in character but not identical with any recent reptilian genus. This comparison was made possible by the Director of the Zoological Survey of India who kindly provided eggs of crocodiles, lizards, tortoises, and various birds. The differences in structure seen may be partly due to secondary changes during fossilisation. A portion of the membrane was seen to be present but this had lost all trace of distinctive structure. From their very nature fossil eggs are necessarily rare objects, and this discovery is one of considerable interest.

Another discovery of interest, made by Major L. M. Davies during his work in the Samana range, consisted of a number of Cretaceous fossils from an horizon hitherto unknown in India. Amongst the specimens are several examples of *Douvilleiceras mammillatum* in a good state of preservation, the identity with the European form being complete. Amongst the other Ammonites are species of the genera *Acanthoceras* and *Hoplites*, and several uncoiled Ammonite species. Amongst the echinoids the genera, *Discoidea* and *Cardiaster*, are represented, the former by a species close to *hemispherica*. Gastropods lamellibranchs and brachiopods also occur. The matrix is a hard, rather coarse sandstone and the state of the fossils is poor. In spite of this there is little doubt that they are from an horizon new to India and that they are of Gault age.

On his way back from the Khyber, Dr. Fox found some large blocks of yellow sandy limestone near Jamrud. They are thought to have come from the limestone scarp east of Shahgai. The interesting point about them is the fact that they are fossiliferous and contain *Productus* and *Spirifer*, which have been identified by Mr. G. H. Tipper as indicative of a Devonian facies.

During the year collections of fossils were presented to various Universities, colleges and schools throughout India. Casts of many of the principal Siwalik vertebrates were prepared and presented to museums abroad. The Library and collections of the Geological Survey have been used extensively by private geologists visiting Calcutta, to work out their own collections; as in the past every endeavour has been made to assist them.

Sub-Assistant H. M. Lahiri rendered valuable assistance in the work of sorting and classifying the material left by the late Mr. Vredenburg and in other ways. Since November his place has been taken by Sub-Assistant P. N. Mukherji.

MINERALOGY.

During a visit to the Barari Colliery in the Jharia coalfield, Dr. Fermor noticed, on the surface of a collapsed area where seam No. 15 was on fire underground and where smoke was escaping at the surface, two efflorescences, one yellow and the other white. The yellow, which was in arborescent growths, proved to be native sulphur as expected. The white efflorescence was of greater interest, however, for it proved to be cryptohalite, a mineral hitherto recorded only from Vesuvius. Cryptohalite, which is ammonium silicofluoride, $2\text{NH}_4\text{F} \cdot \text{SiF}_6$, occurs naturally, both amorphous and crystallised in the isometric system; in addition a hexagonal form has been prepared artificially. According to Dr. Christie the material from Barari contains all three forms. As the formation of this mineral suggested a combination of ammonia from the coal with fluorine from the mica-apatite-peridotite dykes, which are to be seen underground at Barari, Dr. Fermor revisited Barari and found that the efflorescence occurs by the side of a weathered outcrop of a mica-apatite-peridotite dyke on top of an uncollapsed pillar of the mine, and that both efflorescences are deposited from a white smoke immediately at its point of issue from the hot ground. Judging from information obtained from Mr. Bathgate of the East Indian Coal Company, to whom we are indebted for the collection of further supplies of cryptohalite, the carbonaceous shales overlying the coal seam are also on fire. It is possible, therefore, that these shales, rather than the coal itself, are providing the ammonia. At Barari, at any rate, we have an imitation of one of the phenomena of vulcanicity, for a burning coal seam is producing a result hitherto achieved in Nature only by Vesuvius.

Some years ago fluorite was found by Dr. Fermor in both the Talchirs and the granulites of the Bokaro coal field. It was obviously an added mineral, but its source was unknown. The Barari indication of fluorine in the mica-apatite-peridotite dykes and the fact that these dykes in the Bokaro coalfield are almost invariably weathered at the surface now lead to the suggestion that a portion of the fluorine removed

in the course of this weathering may have found a resting place as the fluorite of the Talchirs and granulites. When it is remembered that in other coalfields also these dykes are similarly weathered other occurrences of fluorite may be anticipated in the Gondwanas.

Near Chikhla in the Bhandara district of the Central Provinces Dr. Fermor some time ago collected a curious rock containing two minerals

Lazulite from the Central Provinces. that were doubtfully identified as sapphirine and enstatite.¹ The blue mineral is in grains too small for separation in sufficient quantity to render possible a chemical analysis, but Dr. Christie has succeeded in determining sufficient of its optical properties to indicate that the mineral is lazulite. This was confirmed by a micro-chemical test for phosphorus. By immersion methods the mineral was found to have the following refractive indices : $\alpha = 1.615$, $\beta = 1.635$, $\gamma = 1.645$ (all ± 0.003) in sodium light. The mineral is optically negative. By heavy liquids the specific gravity was found to be 3.17. Both refractive indices and specific gravity are higher than those hitherto recorded for lazulite ; this probably indicates the presence of a somewhat greater percentage of iron than usual. This is not the first record of lazulite in India ; it had previously been found in Kashmir. The other mineral Dr. Christie found by similar methods to be either clinozoisite or kyanite.

Dr. Fermor has been able to confirm the genetic relationship that appears to exist between chabazite and chlorophaeite, in the basalt of the Deccan Trap. In a doleritic flow rich in chlorophaeite near Pipla in the Chhindwara district, it was found possible to detect minute chabazite crystals in cavities left after the brittle chlorophaeite had been shaken out. Chabazite has now been found in this relationship to chlorophaeite at three different localities, Bhusawal, Nagpur and Pipla. As chlorophaeite is a common mineral in the Deccan traps it seems likely that chabazite will also prove to be widely distributed in this formation.

As has already been recorded Dr. Christie found one of the zeolites obtained from the Bhusawal boring to be ptilolite,² this being the first record of this mineral in India. Mr. Crookshank has now found this mineral to be of common occurrence in zeolitic specimens from the Pipla tract of the Chhindwara district, and it seems not unlikely

Ptilolite in the Deccan Trap.

¹ *Mem. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XXXVII, p. 757.

² *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. LVIII, p. 162.

that ptilolite is widespread in the Deccan Trap formation as the common fibrous zeolite.

Tibet.

During the year preceding his death in 1923, Sir Henry Hayden, late Director of the Geological Survey of India, carried out, at the invitation of the Tibetan Government, a reconnaissance survey of the country to the north-west of Lhasa. With the kind permission of the executor to his will, Mr. A. A. Vlasto, I took the opportunity, while on leave last year, of making a careful search amongst Sir Henry Hayden's papers, in the hope of discovering some written account of his scientific researches and, more especially, any geological map recording his results. Most unfortunately, neither one nor the other could be found. As it was his intention to offer the results of his scientific researches for publication in the *Records* of his old department, I propose to attempt, with the help of my colleague, Mr. G. H. Tipper, the difficult task of constructing a paper out of his field-notes, which, fortunately, have come to light; this paper will appear shortly in the *Records*.

Both from a scientific and an economic point of view, Hayden's results were somewhat disappointing, but they none-the-less form a most valuable addition to our knowledge of the geology of a difficultly accessible area of the central Asian highlands. The reconnaissance was a continuation of his survey of the Tibetan provinces of Tsang and Ü carried out in 1903-04 and comprised the following itinerary.

Sir Henry Hayden was accompanied by the Italian guide, Cesare Cosson, who was afterwards killed with him in Switzerland, and by an Indian surveyor, Gujjan Singh, supplied by the Survey of India, who has produced an excellent and valuable topographical map of the country along the route followed. The party left Lhasa on the 10th of May 1922, and proceeded in a W. N. W. direction to a large lake known as the Kya-ring Tso, the south-eastern edge of which is just under 190 miles from Lhasa. The route followed the ascent of the Kyi Chu valley to the snowy range in which it rises and which includes the peak of Nyen-chen-thang, over 23,000 feet high. The snowy range was found to consist of granite, and the rocks intervening between this and Lhasa included a series characterised by large occurrences of rhyolite unconformably overlying quartzite and shale. The snowy range was crossed *via* the pass known as

the Go-ring La (19,000 feet)—in spite of a “very bad road up to glacier—over granite boulders all the way,” and an “intense” wind all the way down from the Go-ring La—in a march of from 20 to 22 miles. The path then crossed two rivers, the Tri Chu and the Ngang Chu, followed the valley of the Nya-tsang-sung-ngo, skirted the hills S. E. of Shen-tsa-Dzong, and passed through that town to the lake mentioned. From the Kya-ring Tso the travellers worked westwards, passed the Ngang-tsi Tso and its satellite the Phung-pa Tso, to another lake, the Tang-ra Tso. This was their farthest point from Lhasa, being distant some 290 miles as the crow flies.

The rocks between the Nyen-chen-thang range and the Tang-ra Tso consisted almost entirely of two types, a grit series not unlike the Gondwanas and a limestone which appeared to be of Permo-Carboniferous age. One or two patches of Tertiary strata were seen, in one of which some impure coal was inspected.

Similar rocks were encountered on the way back by a slightly different route to Shen-tsa Dzong. From the latter town a north-eastern direction was followed between the large lake Tso-zi-ling and the smaller lake Pang-gok Tso as far as Lhum-pho. The first half of this section of the journey, over hilly country, consisted mostly of the limestone, with smaller exposures of the grit series and one or two tongues of granite. The latter half traversed alluvium, with here and there low hills of Tertiary rocks protruding. At “Limba,” which almost certainly corresponds to the Lhum-pho of the map, a fine dome of Tertiary rocks was seen with a vein of asphalt about 8 inches thick in the centre. Such a structure and seepage would, in a more accessible situation, offer considerable attraction to an oil company.

From Lhum-pho, which is about 190 miles N.N.W. of Lhasa, a somewhat sinuous route was followed back to the latter city past the smaller Pam Tso and the large lake of Nam Tso. The rocks as far as Phong-do Dzong were found to consist of the grits, with patches of limestone and bands of granite. Between Phong-do Dzong and the capital city the rhyolite series was again crossed.

ECONOMIC ENQUIRIES.

Building Materials.

See Limestone.

Cement Materials.

See Limestone.

Coal.

The authorities of Bamra, one of the Feudatory States of Bihar and Orissa, suspected the presence of coal in the south of the State.

An investigation by Mr. H. Cecil Jones, however, failed to reveal any sign of this mineral.

Bamra State : Bihar and Orissa.

Whilst making a general inspection of collieries in the PENCH Valley coalfield, Chhindwara district, Central Provinces in 1924,

PENCH Valley ; Central Provinces.

Mr. Hobson took the opportunity to obtain a number of coal samples from the various pits.

These samples were subsequently analysed in the laboratory of the Geological Survey and the results submitted at the beginning of the year under report.

As a result of these sampling operations and the analyses it is found that the coals have a calorific value ranging from 6,515 B.T.U. down to 5,226 B.T.U. and that whilst the coal in the central portion of the field, which has been exploited to the greatest extent, is all non-coking coal, that in the western part of the field yields a hard coke. As one passes west, also, the seam worked is thicker and on the whole of a somewhat better quality.

The data on which to base any estimate as to the quantity of coking coal available is extremely meagre. Coal which gives a hard coke occurs on the east bank of the Kanhan River and again near Ghorawari to the east; between these two localities no sample could be obtained and a conservative estimate of the lateral extent of this coal would be two miles. East of Ghorawari the coal appears to yield a softer coke such as that obtained from near Kothideo and Kolia, and its lateral extent is increased by at least another two miles. This area is marked by a series of east and west faults which continually bring the strata up to the north but there appears to be a falling off in quality. As a conservative estimate Mr. Hobson considers that a distance of 750 feet to the dip may be taken as the width of exploitable coal-bearing land, though no borings have been put down to test the coal on the dip side. The dip whilst steeper than in the central part of the field should admit of working this distance to the dip. In three pits the seam is worked for a

thickness of from 6 to 8 feet and the full thickness is stated to be from 9 to 20 feet. A figure of 10 feet may be taken for an estimate. Using this data the calculated total reserve of coking coal work out at 3,150,000 tons for each class or a total of 6,300,000 tons. The hard coke, derived from coal with an ash content of 17 to 19 per cent., is not pure enough to be used by itself for metallurgical purposes. The coal yielding the softer coke has an ash content of 19 to 19½ per cent.

Development work in the western part of the field is not yet very far advanced and only three samples could be obtained from this section. The mean analysis of these three samples, air-dried, was as follows:—

Moisture	2.26 per cent.
Volatile matter	29.00 "
Fixed carbon	50.34 "
Ash	18.40 "

From the central section of the field seven samples were obtained having approximately the same analysis, the average of an air-dried sample being as follows:—

Moisture	7.86 per cent.
Volatile matter	29.64 "
Fixed carbon	44.41 "
Ash	18.09 "

At the time the samples were taken simple field coking experiments were carried out to see whether the freshness of the coal had any appreciable effect on its coking properties. In some cases a slight caking effect was obtained in the field and not in the laboratory but on the whole these tests showed that, if the freshly cut material gives a coke, then coke is also obtained in the laboratory at a considerably later date. It is proposed to publish the results of this work in *extenso* shortly.

The possibility of finding coal near Kamasamudram, a railway station on the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway, seems to have impressed the Mysore Durbar to such an extent as to lead them to put down borings. A sample of shaly coal reputed to have

Kamasamudram ;
Madras.

come out of one of the borings, was forwarded to the Geological Survey and yielded on analysis :

Moisture	1.85 per cent.
Volatile matter	41.90 „
Fixed carbon	30.76 „
Ash	25.49 „

The material caked strongly, giving a dark brown ash. The Mysore Durbar, who do not seem to have consulted their own excellent Geological Department, eventually called in the services of Major Hance and at his suggestion appealed to the Geological Survey of India. Mr. Vinayak Rao, who was deputed to investigate the matter, confirms Major Hance's opinion that there are no Gondwana rocks in the neighbourhood, and that no coalfield is likely to be found.

Copper.

A trace of copper ore was noticed in association with galena on the hill 2 miles 5 furlongs N.E. of Kyatpye, in the Yamethin district of Upper Burma. It does not appear to be of any commercial value as an ore of copper.

Old pits for copper were noted by Mr. A. L. Coulson in Bundi State, Rajputana, at Neagaon (25°30': 75°34') : 2 miles west of Narenpur (25°28': 75°32'), and one mile north-west of Gudha (25°34': 75°28') but the ores on prospecting were found to be not worth working.

Engineering Questions and Allied Enquiries.

At the request of the Executive Engineer, Ranchi, Mr. J. A. Dunn was deputed to report upon several bridge foundations on the Ghagra-Simdega section of the Ranchi-Sambalpur main road.

The whole of the area is composed of the Chota Nagpur granite gneiss in general a hard and dense rock, but occasionally somewhat sheared, in which case surface decomposition may result in a soft, easily disintegrating material. The granite-gneiss varies from

a coarse to a quite fine-grained rock, and is occasionally penetrated by pegmatitic veins. Inclusions of epidiorite, varying to hornblende schist, and of felspathic schist are rare. The coarse-grained granite shows a tendency to decompose and disintegrate more rapidly than the fine-grained.

The Banki Nadi—mile $21\frac{1}{2}$ from Lohardaga. The river here averages about 50 yards wide, flowing in the thick alluvium a portion of which connects the two south-flowing tributaries between which the road crosses the river. In order to avoid the construction of more than one bridge the bridge site must be limited to the stretch of river between these tributaries. To the west of the present road the alluvium in the river bed is apparently of some depth; the high banks with the bad lands on the south side would perhaps point to its being quite considerable. At the present crossing tests have not disclosed any rock down to a depth of 16 feet.

Between the present crossing and the Satbahini Nadi to the east Mr. Dunn reports there are two possible sites, one some 200 yards east of the crossing and another at the north turn of the meander immediately to the east. About 200 yards east of the crossing there is a small outcrop of granite-gneiss on the south bank of the river. This rock is somewhat decomposed immediately at the surface, but only to a very shallow depth, the granite below being a hard fine-grained material. The surface of the granite slopes to the N. of N.N.F. at an angle of about 10° . In consequence it seems likely that the depth of the granite surface would considerably increase towards the north bank. This would have to be tested. Of the two sites this is the more favourably located, as the river here is fairly straight and whatever current there is would swing against the south bank where the hard rock is at the surface. This site would also require the least diversion of the present road.

At the alternative site at the north bend in the meander there is a line of granite-gneiss outcrops extending almost across the river except on the north bank itself, but as the river is still cutting into this bank farther east it seems very likely that the granite will be at a very shallow depth. The river is here quite narrow. The abrupt turn in the river will throw a strong current against the north bank, but fortunately the site is just on the west or upstream side of the actual bend.

Streams between Gumla and Palkot. In all the streams between Gumla and Palkot there are good granite outcrops close to the

present road. Where decomposed at the surface, the granite should, of course, be excavated for a few feet in depth.

River 4 miles south of Palkot.—The river in this neighbourhood is about 60 to 100 feet wide. At the present crossing it is about 100 feet wide, the bank being about 3 feet high. Tests have shown that the alluvium extends down to a depth of at least 12 feet. At this site there is no sign whatever of any granite cropping out. Granite was found by Mr. Dunn in the river bed over $\frac{1}{2}$ mile to the east, but a site so far away would mean a very long diversion of the road. About 300 yards west of the present crossing, however, granite crops out on the south bank. At this place the south bank is as high as 10 feet, the north bank being only 3 feet. In the centre of the river bed tests have shown the depth of the alluvium to be at least 6 feet. From the rapid slope of the granite surface on the south bank, the depth of alluvium may be considerable. The river here is only about 60 feet across. It is not possible to state the precise depth of the granite below the alluvium on the north bank, but it is proposed to wash-bore.

River 2 miles south of the previous locality, and just north of Pojenga. At the present crossing there is a small outcrop of granite in the centre of the river bed, but the alluvium is apparently quite thick on either side. A little farther upstream, however, fine fresh granite crops out across the river, and would afford the best bridge foundations.

Small stream at mile 74 $\frac{1}{2}$ on the Kolebira-Biru section. The stream is a small tributary of a branch of the Halwai Nadi. The old culvert, built on sandy alluvium, was swept away by floods owing to insecure foundations. Downstream, only sand and loam occur in the stream bank. About 250-300 yards upstream, however, some granite was noted by Mr. Dunn crossing the stream-bed, and this should take any culvert quite well. It is rather far upstream for a good road-gradient in this hill-section, and the Engineer proposes to wash-bore at the present site; Mr. Dunn, however, thinks the depth of alluvium may be considerable.

The Halwai Nadi, 2 miles S.S.W. of Biru. To the west of the present crossing only alluvium is met with as far as the Palamara River and there is no suitable bridge site. At the crossing itself, just on the north side, is a very small outcrop of granite, but in the river and on the south bank there is only alluvium which is apparently quite thick. The stream here is also rather wide,

East of the present crossing, however, granite was found cropping out on both sides of the stream and about 14 miles upstream there is a very favourable spot where the width is only 200 feet. The granite here on both banks is described as fairly fresh. The bed of the stream between the banks is in thick alluvium, but the irregular character of the denudation of the granite makes it impossible to estimate what the depth of the alluvium may be; it may be 20 feet, perhaps more, and the surface of the granite below may be decomposed for 3 or 4 feet or more. The central pier would naturally have to go to the granite surface, and only excavating or boring would show the depth of this. With such a depth of alluvium there should be no danger of scour on the actual foundation even with the very strong current which is said to come down this stream after heavy rain.

Khunti Toli Nadi, 2 miles farther south, just north of Bangra village. Only alluvium occurs at the suggested site. Granite occurs on the rise close to the village 200 yards to the south, and there is also an outcrop some distance up the southern fork of the stream to the east. There is, however, never much water in the stream, and the alluvium seems quite firm and shows no tendency to scour. The banks are quite high, showing as much as 15 feet of alluvium and the depth of the latter may be well over 20 feet. The engineer proposes to wash-bore in case granite may be met with at a shallow depth, but it is thought that, with due precautions the two culverts necessary might be quite safe on the alluvium.

Mr. Dunn concludes his report by remarking that throughout the length of the road examined the granite should make excellent foundations. The surface rock is generally somewhat decomposed, and where directly subject to a strong current is likely to scour, but if the foundations are sunk about 2 feet into the fresh rock this would be avoided. Granite below alluvium, it must be remembered, has been subject to decomposition by the overlying water, but no removal of the decomposed material by scour has been possible. All piers, therefore, must be taken through this decomposition zone and well into the fresh granite.

At the request of the Deputy Commissioner of Singhbhum, Mr. J. A. Dunn was deputed to report on the location of a proposed dam in the Sanjai River immediately to the east of Chhankata village, a little over a mile from Sonua.

Dam-site: Chhankata, Singhbhum district, Bihar and Orissa,

About $\frac{1}{2}$ mile to the N. W. of Sonua village is a large tank, along the land on the south side of which runs the Sonua-Jate road. An old trench extends in a north-westerly direction from the tank to the river, and it is immediately on the south side of the point where this trench meets the river that it is proposed to erect the dam. The height of the proposed dam will be from 15 to 17 feet. It is proposed to divert the flood waters of the Sanjai into the tank for the purpose of irrigating the land to the south.

In the bed of the stream at the site of the dam is an outcrop of a peculiar indurated shale. With the exception of two or three very small quartz veins no more than $\frac{1}{2}$ inch wide, the rock is uniform throughout and practically devoid of joints or fissures. The cleavage is very slight and dips 15° E. of N. at about 80° . The rock is considerably contorted here and there, but its homogeneity and poor cleavage prevent this from being a drawback.

Mr. Dunn notes that the strongest foundation will, of course, be obtained by an alignment parallel to the direction of the cleavage, hence slightly askew to the direction of the stream above the toe of the dam. The dip of the cleavage is upstream; this is also a favourable feature both in regard to the impermeability of the foundation and the direction of thrust. The rock itself, although indurated and dense, is not as hard as might be hoped, and if the proposed structure were to be of any considerable height with a high pressure on the foundation, the site would be unsuitable. But as the height of the structure is to be about 17 feet only, and the maximum pressure about 3 tons per square foot, the strength of the rock is probably considerably more than is required; it is suggested that this opinion be confirmed by a test. There is no likelihood of scour. Mr. Dunn notes that the northern 10 feet of the outcrop of shales in the stream-bed are rather more highly cleaved and fissured than the remainder of the outcrop, and for this reason thinks it would be advisable to keep the toe of the dam this distance downstream from the north edge of the outcrop.

Mr. W. D. West was deputed to advise on certain questions regarding the reservoir in course of construction at Maniari in the Bilaspur district of the Central Provinces. A waste weir site has been chosen at the S. W. end of this reservoir, and information was required as to (i) whether sound rock is likely to be obtained at a

reasonable depth under the soft and cracked rock at the left (east) flank of the weir, and if so at about what depth; and (ii) whether there is any reason to suppose that the rock in the centre and right flank of the weir is not entirely sound and is not connected with the solid stratum of rock which appears to underlie the whole area.

The site chosen for the waste weir is a small spur of granite running out into the alluvium in an easterly direction from the main granite hills on the west. It is bounded on the south by thick alluvium, and on the north by a small stream running east, which has cut its way down into rather altered granite.

Doubts as to the soundness of the site have arisen owing to the fact that the rock at the eastern end of the spur is of a different nature from that forming its centre and western end. Examination has shown that the former is an acid variety of the granite, differing chiefly in the complete absence of mica. In addition it has a somewhat fissile structure giving it a bedded appearance with a strike about 75° E. of S.

The junction between the two types is quite apparent, and, owing to the fact that the upper surface of the true granite slopes to the east and that the eastern end of the spur is somewhat higher than the centre, there has arisen the idea that the true granite dips under the acid variety in the manner of a stratified sedimentary deposit. The granite and its acid variety being igneous rocks there is no particular reason to expect that it may continue to dip eastwards under the acid variety at an angle the same as the surface slope of the granite as seen on the top of the hill. The latter is a purely denudation effect. It is much more likely that the junction is quite irregular; it may approach verticality.

To the east of this granite spur is the Maniari river, which passes mainly through alluvium but also reveals some granite. Further east still, however, is a narrow line of rock standing up out of the alluvium and running about 75° W. of N., a direction which is exactly in line with the acid rock at the end of the spur. Moreover it is of precisely the same rock with the same fissile structure, and, although it is not seen in the Maniari river, there can be little doubt that the two were once connected in the form of a long dyke cutting the granite.

An important point about this dyke rock is noted by Mr. West. At the top of the eastern end of the spur the rock is seen to be traversed by a fine network of veins of quartz, and the same feature

is seen in the continuation of the dyke to the east of the river. It is clear that this is due to the rock having been badly crushed at some time, the fractures being subsequently sealed up by quartz deposited in them, as is commonly the case with crushing due to faulting.

The rock thus suffers from two weaknesses, the fissile "bedded" structure, which is parallel to the length of the dyke and may have had some connection with the way it cooled; and this later crushing, which, although subsequently sealed up by vein quartz, will always be a source of trouble.

The rock, therefore, as already recognised by the engineers, is eminently unsuited for the construction of part of a weir, and, what is of particular relevance, it has been shown that both these weaknesses occur in the rock throughout its length, so that should the acid rock on the hill continue in depth, as is most probable, there is little likelihood that it will change into rock without these weaknesses.

It appears that if sound rock could be reached at or above R.L. 1160 then the present design and position of the weir could still be retained. As already pointed out, the slope of the top of the sound granite cannot be regarded as necessarily continuing thus beneath the unsound rock, and a careful examination of the north and south sides of the hill certainly suggests that the unsound rock continues in depth to below the 1160 limit, although the evidence is not absolutely decisive. Stronger evidence is afforded by the eastern end of the spur. All down this side the unsound acid rock can be seen actually in place, the lowest point being about R. L. 1130 or 1125, although of course it may go lower, and the whole of this would presumably have to be excavated. Thus there seems no chance of the required conditions being satisfied.

Mr. West has, therefore, recommended that further excavation at the eastern end of the weir site be stopped and the site moved further west. The rock in the centre and in the western side of the weir, as at present designed, does consist of the typical granite of the area and is certainly connected with the solid stratum that underlies the whole area. It is also probably quite sound, although it will contain the usual joints that are found in granites. In addition there is a certain amount of jointing in a direction 75° W. of N. to 75° E. of S., *i.e.*, along the length of the weir, which appears to be a direction of weakness throughout the area; this

appears to die out westwards and is not regarded as being a very serious factor.

The heavy rains of 1925 appear to have been responsible for falls of the roof and subsidence in some of the tunnels of the Khyber Railway, particularly between the present terminus at Landi Kotal and the projected terminus at Landi Khana. The services of an officer of the Geological Survey having been requested for the examination of the hill-sides and tunnels of the line, Dr. C. S. Fox was deputed to carry out the investigation, Mr. E. R. Gee accompanying him for instructional purposes. The railway alignment has encountered massive bedded limestone and laminated shales with finely disseminated pyrite. Both types of rock, although showing a general regularity of strike and dip, were found to be intensely over-folded. In the case of the limestones from the Ali Musjid tunnels to Landi Kotal, the line can be assumed to be quite safe. According to Dr. Fox, the same can scarcely be said regarding the tunnels in the black and grey slaty shales. These rocks, occasionally crossed by zones of crush and shearing, owing to the presence of finely disseminated pyrite, are subject to rapid alteration on exposure to damp air. The pyrite is decomposed, and the sulphuric acid therefrom leads to the formation of alum, breaking down the shales into soft clay. The alum occurs as an efflorescence on the surface of the shales or in the tunnels which traverse these beds. After rain the efflorescence is washed away, but in the following dry weather more efflorescence appears. Thus it is that the shales, besides being decomposed into clay, are leached of a considerable volume of solid matter. The process must lead to a weakening of the strata, particularly in the tunnels, since the oxidation of the pyrite cannot be prevented, nor is it possible to prevent the soluble alum from being removed in solution. Unfortunately, the trouble does not end with the decomposition of the shale to clay, nor with the liberation of acid and formation and removal of alum. The sulphuric acid and the sulphate salts have a harmful effect on lime mortar, concrete, and portland cement, and the cementing medium is rendered useless and friable and the masonry weakened.

The best solution to the problem is, in the opinion of Dr. Fox, the use of blocks of quartzite or hard pure sandstone without any mortar. This method is considered impracticable in the Khyber

owing to the difficulty of procuring the quartzite. A reasonable degree of immunity, at least against the presence of sulphate salts, would appear to be possible by using a more suitable mortar, such as bauxite cement (*ciment fondu* or La Farge Cement). Experiments have shown that bauxite cement sets quickly and at the same time to a higher strength than portland cement. It is specially claimed that bauxite cement is immune to the corroding effects of salt water or soils contaminated with sulphate salts. If these claims for bauxite cement can be substantiated, it is evident that the masonry of the tunnels in the pyritiferous slaty shales should be re-cemented with bauxite cement. This has been recommended by Dr. Fox, who considers that the hill-sides are safe, but that the trouble is, and will continue to be, the weakening of the shales particularly in the tunnel sections. The sections which need early attention have been pointed out. The re-lining of all the tunnels, which show an efflorescence of white (alum) salts in the tunnel and on the shales outside, should be carried out steadily on an extended programme, the case of those tunnels which traverse the shales along their strike being relatively more urgent than that of tunnels which cross the strike of the strata. Tunnels which cross zones of crush and shear in the shales require the earliest attention.

Dr. Fox has also discussed the effects of floods in the streams of alluvial tracts, such as those between Jamrud and Bagdari and about Zintarra. He recommends stream training by means of stone-aprons (masonry surfaces) gently inclined upstream, both in dip and strike, to the bed and banks respectively of the stream. Such control devices are best situated just above a concave bend or where a stream is to be deflected; they should be located on that bank which is subject to scour. The deflecting angle should not be more than 20° either in dip or strike to the direction of stream flow. A stream will thus be forced up the inclined plane, its velocity reduced, and its load of débris deposited, the water spilling back to the stream robbed of its scouring power.

At the request of the Superintending Engineer, Hydro-Electric Haro River dam-sites, Circle, Punjab, Dr. G. E. Pilgrim was deputed Punjab. to investigate and report upon proposed dam sites in the Haro River where it leaves an open alluvial plain and enters high rocky hills just before reaching the village of Sanjwal, some 4 miles E. S. E. of Campbellpore. Two sites had been sug-

gested, one of them, the lower site, parallel to the strike of the rocks and the other, some 300 yards higher up stream, running across the strike.

According to the report Dr. Pilgrim has submitted, the majority of the rocks are of limestone with occasional shaly bands amongst which is one prominent bed of purple shale. The lithological resemblance of certain of the beds to the basal nummulitic beds of the Pir Panjal and the occurrence in them of similar small foraminifera, leave it hardly in doubt that all the rocks belong to the Hill Limestone stage of the Kala Chitta Nummulitics. The total thickness of strata exposed in the river section is about 350 feet, of which about 60 feet are massive limestones. These are underlain by thin-bedded limestones, with some bands of shale, a prominent bed of purple shale being amongst the lowest beds exposed. These are perhaps about 170 feet thick. The massive limestones are overlain by thin-bedded shaly limestone and shale, of which about 120 feet are exposed. This series of strata is crossed four times between the bend in the river and a point about 300 yards below the lower dam site, where the beds become almost horizontal. This is due to the fact that there are five folds between the Sanjwal ridge and the point below the lower dam site mentioned above. From Sanjwal village down to the bend in the river the strike of the beds is approximately E.-W. and follows the course of the river, which thus flows along an anticlinal fold, Sanjwal ridge forming a synclinal basin, bed after bed coming to an end east of Sanjwal village. At the bend in the river the strike curves sharply from an E.-W. direction to a S.E.-N.W. direction, and then very gradually resumes its original direction.

North of the Sanjwal synclinal ridge the rocks disappear beneath a large area of cultivated ground. These alluvial beds are well seen in the bed of a large stream about one mile west of Sanjwal village and about the ground to the west of this stream. They consist of a fairly compact silty sandstone or clay, with bands of soft but more compact sandstone as much as 2 feet thick in places. The highest member of the alluvial series is a conglomerate with large pebbles, which is frequently encrusted with calcareous tufa. At Jessian, about three miles to the west, this conglomerate caps many of the hills and is as much as 30 feet thick; but in the area now dealt with Dr. Pilgrim only noticed it in a small exposure to the east of the village of Sanjwal. Besides the area of cultivated ground to

the north of the Sanjwal synclinal, referred to above, there are other areas of cultivation to the west of the lower dam site, which no doubt represent alluvial deposits of a greater or less depth. From observations at Jessian and elsewhere, it was evident that the alluvium fills up valleys between the solid rock formations, which are often of considerable depth; from which it follows that the alluvium thickens very rapidly from the nearest visible outcrop of solid rock. The significance of this from the point of view of the construction of a masonry overflow is of some importance.

Although only two sites were suggested for a dam, three distinct projects arise for consideration on these two sites. On the lower site it is possible to build : (1) a gravity dam across the narrowest portion of the gorge, resting on and, so to speak, continuing the massive limestone rock which forms vertical walls on either side of the river ; (2) an arch dam springing from two haunches of massive limestone on either side of the river. On the upper site no such haunches of solid rock exist so that a dam constructed in this position must necessarily be of the gravity type (3).

A dam which runs parallel to the strike of the rocks is *primâ facie* to be preferred to one which runs across the strike. In the latter case the bedding planes which offer opportunities for the water to percolate to and so weaken the foundations of the dam are numerous ; in the former, on the other hand, the bedding planes are few in number and the danger of percolation is diminished. Although in the present instance the substance of the thin-bedded limestones and shales, which would form the greater portion of the floor against the upper dam site, is not itself permeable, the thin-bedded character of the rocks offers a possible source of danger. Other things being equal therefore, the lower site is to be preferred. Apart from the question of expense, another objection exists, in the opinion of Dr. Pilgrim, in the case of the upper site, which may tend to weigh down the balance in favour of the lower site. This is that by choosing the upper site the reservoir will be deprived of a very important portion of its storage content, and, moreover, since that portion of the reservoir to the north of the Sanjwal ridge communicates with the Haro by a stream which cuts through the ridge to the west of the upper site, it will be necessary to construct a massive *band* to impound the water in this northern portion. The massive limestone in the places where it lies in its original bedding planes, that is to say, where it is not folded, appears to be reason-

ably free from fissures, and its compact and massive character renders it eminently suitable to withstand great pressures and to form a secure foundation for any masonry structure. Unfortunately at the lower dam site the limestone is sharply folded both along and across the strike, and, as might be expected, is badly fissured. On either side, as one leaves the folded zone, the fissuring seems to be absent. It might be possible to construct a gravity dam here against the limestone walls with the aid of extensive cement grouting were it not for the fact that on account of the sharp bend in the strike at this point the zone of fissuring must extend far below the river level where grouting would be impossible. Such open fissures would be a certain source of leakage from the reservoir if not of actual danger to the stability of the dam.

Dr. Pilgrim considers that an arch dam might, however, be built so as to spring from the massive limestone cliffs outside the fissured zone, that is to say, from a point about 130 feet from the right bank of the river and from another point about 350 feet from the left bank of the river. These limits might perhaps be relaxed provided all visible fissures were grouted with cement, since an apron of impermeable rock interposes itself between the concealed fissured limestone and the reservoir, as the ground rises on either side away from the river. For the same reason in other parts of the reservoir which come into contact with the massive limestone it would only be the upper levels of the water which would actually touch it, since the impermeable thin-bedded limestone extends a long way up the hill sides. The smaller hydrostatic pressure in this case would be insufficient to cause serious leakage. Subsequently, if found necessary, visible fissures could be grouted in such parts of the reservoir.

Dr. Pilgrim considers that the formation as a whole would afford a sufficiently stable foundation for the base of the arch dam, the stability of which would not be impaired by leakage at its base since this part of the rock formation appears to be reasonably impermeable to water.

With regard to the location of an overflow for the reservoir, Dr. Pilgrim prefers a site about 5 furlongs west of Sanjwal village where the cultivated ground mentioned above rises to a crest of about 1163 feet elevation. To the west of this crest the ground falls to the stream mentioned above. The topmost level of the water will just reach this crest, and it constitutes an eminently

suitable site for an overflow into the stream referred to. The only difficulty concerns the depth at which the solid rock lies beneath the alluvium, on which the masonry foundations of the overflow should rest. Information on this point could be gleaned from trial pits.

Should the alluvium be too thick to make the construction of an overflow practicable on the line suggested, an alternative line exists, 400 feet to the N.E. On this line it is certain that rock exists a short distance beneath the surface. The objection to this line, however, is that the water from the overflow will naturally follow the course of a small stream, which will bring it into the Haro at a point too near the tail-race of the Hydro-Electric Power Works which it is proposed to erect. It will, therefore, be necessary to cut a channel through an outcrop of limestone to the south and lead the water from the overflow into the Haro at a point which is farther away from the tail-race. The expense of this would to some extent be compensated for by the limestone which would thus be rendered available for building the dam.

From a geological point of view the disposition of the strata render the construction of an arch dam on the lower site preferable to a gravity dam on the upper site, and the larger storage obtained tells in favour of the former project.

On the alignment of the projected Mukerian-Mandi Railway there is one section for which two alternative alignments have been proposed. This section is situated from 2 to 3 miles east of the village of Talwara in the extreme eastern portion of Survey Sheet 248 N.E. (scale 2 inches=1 mile). At the request of the Superintendent of the Hydro Electric Circle for the Punjab, Dr. G. E. Pilgrim was deputed to visit the site with the object of investigating the respective geological merits of the two alignments. According to him the geological formations exposed in the area consist of :-

- (1) A series of massive but soft sandstones occurring in bands, having an average thickness of about 60 feet, interbedded with softer silty sandstones and arenaceous clays occupying an average thickness of 20 feet between each band of massive sandstone. These beds belong to the upper part of the Pinjor stage of the Upper Siwaliks.
- (2) A boulder gravel which caps the preceding stage of sandstones and clays and occupies only the highest summits

of the range which rises between the Beas river and the Khad Ghamir, and occasionally small scarps which occur on the slopes down to the Khad Ghamir. This is never more than about 10 feet thick and belongs to the Boulder Conglomerate stage of the Upper Siwaliks. The strike of these beds is seen to bend round from N.N.W.—S.S.E., to N.N.E.—S.S.W. The beds are disposed in a sharp synclinal fold, having its axis approximately in the bed of the Khad Ghamir. The dip of the beds both to the east and west of the axis increases rapidly from the horizontal to a maximum of about 40°.

- (3) A series of horizontally bedded gravels of sub-Recent age and derived from the disintegration of the boulder conglomerate mentioned above. These occupy the flat plateaus round Talwara about 50 feet above the bed of the Beas and also extend some way up the slopes of the hill-sides.

To consider first the original or more northerly alignment proposed which hugs the S. bank of the Beas, the first $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles are either along the low ground just above the flood level or on the gravel plateaus. As the point is neared where the hills adjoin the Beas, the alignment passes over the lower gravel slopes. So far no difficulty occurs since the gravels are stable and will form a sound embankment. The real difficulty begins when the Upper Siwalik beds run out to the river and affects a distance of about $\frac{1}{2}$ mile. This portion of the alignment is almost at right angles to the strike of the beds, so that the conditions making for geological stability are all that can be desired, provided the rocks themselves afford a sufficiently secure foundation for the line. Unfortunately this is only partially the case. The bands of massive sandstone, which form spurs jutting out into the river are, though soft, free from fissures and compact, and it is not anticipated that any danger is to be feared to that part of the line which may rest on this or to the concrete foundations which may be constructed on this as a base. The sandstone is even less liable to disintegration by water than by atmospheric agencies, as is shown by the spurs jutting far out into the river. Dr. Pilgrim, however, recommends that blocks one foot cube be subjected to immersion in water and to alternate exposure to a stream of water followed by desiccation in the sun at

intervals of 24 hours, during a period of a month, in order to make sure that no deleterious change takes place.

The state of affairs is, however, very different in the case of the softer silty sandstone and arenaceous clays which it has been stated are interbedded with the massive sandstones. The silty sandstones readily break down into a loose sand, where they are exposed to air, though even in their case the disintegration is more rapid under atmospheric agencies than under water. The clay bands are liable to erosion by water, and in consequence the whole stretch composed of the two elements, clay and sandstone, is worn away and a series of small stream-courses is produced between the bands of massive sandstone, while the river embays in such places between the projecting spurs of massive sandstone. It is, therefore, obvious that no reliance is to be placed on this part of the formation as a base for foundations of any kind.

Either wedge-shaped concrete revetments may be used to bridge over the stream courses, or steel culverts may be employed to connect successive ridges of massive sandstone, whichever is found to be most economical or desirable from an engineering point of view. The massive sandstone may be regarded as strong enough to stand the weight or to afford a secure foundation, while at the same time no apprehensions need be entertained for the cuttings, or in one case the tunnel, which will in every case be necessary to carry the line through the sandstone spurs, providing the experimental tests suggested produce satisfactory results.

If the weak places referred to above are ensured, Dr. Pilgrim considers there is no reason why this alignment should not be satisfactory.

Proceeding to the consideration of an alternative and somewhat longer alignment proposed by Major Anderson, we find that from the point where it diverges from the original alignment it passes over a sub-Recent gravel plateau and then ascends for the most part over superficial gravels until near the village of Nagrota. Beyond the steeper gradients involved and the greater amount of embanking necessary, there are no difficulties from a geological point of view up to this point. From now on the alignment gradually descends to the Khad Ghamir traversing three broad compound stream-courses which run down into the Nala Ghamir. This portion of the alignment is along the strike of the rocks, which dip at angles of from 20° to 30° , and thus correspond approximately with the angle of slope of the hill side. Owing to the denuding action of atmospheric agencies, the massive

sandstone has only been preserved for the most part on the spurs between the various tributary streamlets which run into the Khad Ghamir. The streamlets themselves are carved out of the soft silty sandstones and clays, which in the case of the area we are dealing with underlie the band of massive sandstone. According to Dr. Pilgrim, in three parts of the alignment it runs for distances of one to two furlongs practically on these softer rocks and over the whole of the hill-side these have disintegrated into sand, clay and soil. The geological conditions, therefore, are most favourable for slips of these loose collections of débris on to the alignment, while the slopes below the line being often very steep are also insecure. The junction between the massive sandstone is in general a precipitous cliff perhaps only 10 feet but sometimes as much as 20 feet in height.

In order to carry a railway line safely through country of this nature it is necessary that extensive revetments be made both above as well as below the line and a considerable amount of earth work banked up. If the expenditure of considerable sums on revetting and embanking is considered no objection Dr. Pilgrim, thinks that the unfavourable geological conditions can be successfully combatted.

With regard to the respective merits of the two alignments the question seems to be more one of expense than of anything else. In the first scheme there are numerous small intervals between the massive sandstone spurs to be bridged and numerous small cuttings to be made. In the second scheme the alignment is slightly longer and steeper and heavy revetments, high embankments and a few long cuttings will be necessary. It is thought that the second scheme would cost somewhat more in upkeep.

A site selected for married quarters near the Tytler Lines at Bakloh having been abandoned on account of land-slides, the Geo-

Building sites, Bakloh logical Survey were appealed to for assistance, **Cantonment ; Punjab.** and Mr. E. J. Bradshaw was deputed to report upon the stability of alternative sites.

The Bakloh cantonment is built upon a ridge of Tertiary rocks consisting of dark, indurated, compact, and sometimes micaceous sandstone with intercalated beds of friable ferruginous shales. The sandstone is very freely jointed, so that it is usually possible to break off rectangular blocks of any size. This free jointing results

in the separation of large, irregular boulders at almost every outcrop. It is the combination of the clastic nature of the sandstone with the friable and slippery quality of the underlying shales which is the cause of the general instability of the area.

During heavy rain, small streams of water either eat back from the edges of the terraces over which they drain, or else find their way through the joint-planes of the sandstones and wash away the underlying shales; the result in both cases is the isolation of large boulders and masses of rock which are left in a state of gradually increasing instability.

The dip of the rocks in the cantonment is variable, but produces the general form of a syncline. The average dip on the west side of the Tytler Lines is about 35° to the north-east, while the dip on the east side is steeper and about 65° to west-south-west. Mr. Bradshaw remarks that while, in general, areas of steep dip are the most likely to give trouble through fracturing of the sandstone and the fall of boulders, yet the question of dip is of less importance than usual on account of the free jointing of the sandstone which is common to the whole area and is the immediate and governing cause of slipping.

It may be said at once that the whole of that portion of the Bakloh Ridge on which the Tytler Lines are built is unstable and, where there are no protective works, will be subject to removal piecemeal. The whole area is treacherous, and there is no building site which can be regarded as naturally and permanently sound. It is thought possible, however, to select sites which can be rendered reasonably secure by building protective works; these should primarily take the form of adequate drainage.

The general considerations which should govern the choice of any building site in the area are summarised by Mr. Bradshaw as follows:—

- (1) Sites should be chosen on spurs rather than in re-entrants; re-entrants into which the surface water drains from every direction should especially be avoided.
- (2) Ground which is overlooked by steep scarps may itself be sound, but there is, of course, the danger of material slipping from above.
- (3) Ground where the slope of the hill-side is low is usually stable.

- (4) Ground which has a large catchment area above it should be avoided unless the water drains naturally to the side and not over the ground.
- (5) Where firm ground can be found in the neighbourhood of a permanent stream-course, the construction of artificial drainage will be facilitated ; but, if the ground is not firm, the proximity of a stream-course is a danger, and the site should be avoided.
- (6) Springs on or above a site are a source of danger, and their immediate neighbourhood should be avoided.

The most important criterion regarding any site selected for building purposes is that it should be adequately drained. A suggested scheme of drainage for terraces was put forward by Mr. Bradshaw, who notes the following chief points :—

- (1) Drainage should not be confined to the site alone. The ground both above and below each terrace should also be drained thoroughly.
- (2) Both the slope behind the terrace and the lower face of the terrace itself should be supported to a height of about 5 feet by porous retaining walls, either of open-masonry or with weep-holes. Short wing walls might have to be built in some cases where terraces have to be excavated in the hillside.
- (3) Drains of adequate capacity should run *immediately at the foot* of these retaining walls. It is important that the drainage should not be skimmed or curtailed. The water should be led away quite clear of the ground immediately below the terraces.
- (4) The terrace should have a gutter at the front edge of the terrace, so that surface water could be carried to the sides and prevented from spilling over the face of the terrace.
- (5) An adequate catch-drain or drains should be provided in the ground above the site to divert the surface waters well clear of the sides of the terrace.
- (6) Where there are large stream-courses close to the terrace they should be cascaded where possible and sharp corners eliminated from the near vicinity of the building site.

- (7) A small drain leading into the front gutter should surround the building itself so as to carry off water from the roof.
- (8) If any small channels run naturally across a site, they should be diverted from above by lateral drainage.

Owing to heavy rain during the greater part of his visit, Mr. Bradshaw had the advantage of seeing the ground actually water-logged. Several small slips occurred while he was there, and the problem of the relative stability of different parts of the area was greatly simplified and in part solved by the manner in which the different sites withstood the severe rainfall.

The actual problem was to find sites for eighty-five married quarters. A block of ten quarters requires a terrace roughly 130 feet by 30 feet, and a block of five quarters one 70 feet by 30 feet.

It was decided that the majority of the quarters should be built on site No. 1 in spite of the disadvantage of its distance from the parade ground. The first block of ten quarters is to be situated on a spur below a telegraph pole on the road. This ridge is comparatively dry and stable, and the dip of its rocks is from 60° to 65° to the west-north-west. There is overhanging ground which is not stable but any fall would be broken by the terrace behind the site chosen. When the site is terraced, the front face should be supported by a retaining wall.

Two blocks of five quarters, staggered and *en echelon*, are to be sited on a similar spur close to that which has just been described. The same remarks apply as in the case of the first site.

Further along the road, the gentle slope of the hillside is broken by a series of low terraces. In this locality it is proposed that six blocks of ten quarters each should be situated. The dip of the rocks is 60° - 65° to the west-north-west. The ground is stable, and consists of large boulders imbedded in firm soil. There is a considerable amount of surface water, but there will be no difficulty in leading it into the large stream-course near by. Great care should be exercised in ensuring that the water which irrigates the cultivated terraces above is all diverted clear of the site. The drainage of the road also should be improved.

Another site is below the hospital, and provides room for two blocks of five quarters each. The ground is firm, and should be drained into the neighbouring water-course. The road above should be drained adequately, and the small spring in front of the site should be avoided.

A further site was considered unsuitable for married quarters, chiefly on account of the proximity of the Isolation Hospital, but the area should provide a good site for any other buildings which may be required in the future. It lies on the crest of a steep and narrow ridge where micaceous sandstones and slaty ferruginous shales dip west-south-west at 65° . The ground is firm, and there is the advantage of the presence of several ready-made foundations available *in situ*.

Another site occupies the top of the western side of the ridge. The dip of the rocks is comparatively low, being north-east at about 30° . The rocks are the usual sandstones and shales, the actual sites being on shale. Here there are two terraces suitable for building on, provided they are adequately drained. The adjacent water-course would have to be cascaded, and there are some sharp corners in its course which ought to be eliminated, especially that just above the terraces. The terraces should be supported by retaining walls. For disciplinary reasons, this site was not considered suitable for married quarters, but, like the preceding, it provides a good potential situation for any other building which may be required in the future.

In Mr. Bradshaw's opinion, none of the sites is ideal, but, provided thorough drainage is carried out on the lines suggested, the sites could be made reasonably secure and stable.

After the buildings have been constructed, the first period of heavy rain will provide an opportunity for judging the efficiency of the drains in carrying all surface water clear of the terraces. As the stability of the terraces depends entirely upon the efficiency of drainage, additional drains should be constructed wherever the drains built are demonstrated to be inadequate to keep the terraces firm and dry.

Since 1915 the question of establishing a large dam 280 feet high in the Bhakhra gorge of the Sutlej river has at one time or another been referred to this Department for opinion, **Bhakhra dam ; Punjab.** In 1925 the galleries laying bare the strata in the gorge, which had been recommended by the Geological Survey, were at last completed. Dr. C. S. Fox was instructed to examine the rocks in these galleries on his way back from the Khyber. The rocks in the narrowest part of the gorge, in the section selected for the site of the dam are somewhat crushed by their forces, evidently

the result of the weight of the beds in the steep hills on either side. There are potentialities, explained in the report submitted by Dr. Fox, for a landslide to occur just below the narrowest part of the gorge, owing to the strata being inclined down stream at high angles and striking across the gorge, almost at right angles. It is possible by going somewhat above the narrowest point of the gorge to find a place on which it would be safe enough to found a large dam. This place is roughly 300 feet above the previously selected site. On account of the steep hill-sides, however, it appears wise not to cut a permanent, side spillway in the flanks of the gorge. Through the ridge on the north side of the gorge Dr. Fox has pointed out the alignment of a tunnel which might function as a spillway. With due precautions the Bhakhra gorge is not considered unsuitable as the site of a large dam.

At the request of the Forest Department of the Government of Bengal for an investigation of several landslides in the Kalimpong

Landslides ; Kalim-
pong division, Bengal. Division, Mr. E. R. Gee was deputed to visit the areas affected. Some of the landslides visited were situated within the Government

Forests, causing the destruction of jungle over considerable areas. Others in Khas Mahal districts affected both the jungle and arable land, preventing the cultivation of the maize and rice crops which are grown extensively on these hill-slopes.

The areas, which, up to the present have been affected by the landslides include parts of the Rissum, Labha, Pankasari, Ambioik, Chunnang and Pugo Forest Blocks ; and the Chibo, Dolepchan, Ambioik, Pala, Pagag, Nim, Pagrenbong, Nimbong, Nobgong, Yangmakum, and Suruk Khas Mahal areas.

The strata concerned in the slides include the following formations :—

- (1) The Coal-bearing Gondwanas, including felspathic grey and green sandstones with thick grey-green clays and several coal-seams.
- (2) Slates and phyllites of the Daling division.
- (3) The Gneissic series.

All the Gondwana strata have been severely crushed, the sandstones becoming markedly jointed, and the clays together with some of the coal-seams, converted into flaky shales. In a similar manner

the clays and phyllites of the Daling division have become finely foliated and traversed by numerous planes of fracture. The angle of dip is usually very steep.

As a result of weathering the rocks have disintegrated rapidly, the original slope of the hillsides representing the angle of repose for unweathered rock. This factor combined with the fact that erosion has made the present slopes steeper than the original, has resulted in the instability of various parts of the division. The disintegration of the rocks, and therefore the mode and extent of the slipping, obviously depend on the nature of the strata affected.

Mr. Gee remarks that, in the case of the gneisses and micaceous schists, their rapid weathering appears to be due to the softer schistose intercalations, combined with the marked jointing of the harder gneisses. The disintegration of these gneissic outcrops being comparatively slow the landslips are of an intermittent nature depending on the rate of weathering of these harder gneisses. Attempts should therefore be made to protect these more resistant rock outcrops, so as to keep the intervening slopes of softer rock stable for a period sufficiently long to permit to the proper afforestation of the slide and the neighbouring slopes. Considering the denseness of the jungles of the division the importance of this factor is very considerable. Measures to further the stability of the harder outcrops might be in the form of stone pavements and revetments; or, in those cases where the exposures in both harder and softer rock are sufficiently sound, a low dam across the stream is suggested by Mr. Gee as likely to yield better results.

In the case of the shales and phyllites similar methods might be used where any resistant outcrops of quartzite or sandstone occur. In other instances, however, in order to prevent effectively the continuance of the slip, the protection of the main drainage channels through a considerable distance would be necessary. In any case the afforestation of the more stable portions of the slide and of the neighbouring slopes should be carried out, and cattle-grazing disallowed.

In the case of the landslides of the Gondwana areas, outcrops of resistant silicified sandstones sometimes occur, but their strength is discounted by the jointing which characterises them. In the Pugo Landslide any such rocks have been so shattered that they offer little opportunity for protection, and afforestation, wherever possible, appears to be the only practical solution.

Mr. Gee has gone into the whole question with commendable care and submitted a useful report which the Government of Bengal has published.

Galena.

See Lead.

Gold.

Mr. Vinayak Rao reports that an adit driven by a prospector into the low hill west of Kuditanapalli village shows a quartz reef about 4 feet wide at the entrance and widening out in the cross-cut about 200 feet further on. The adit has been abandoned owing to the low percentage of gold.

North Arcot district ;
Madras.

Major Cunnyngame-Hughes is stated to have found gold at Rohera ($24^{\circ} 37' : 73^{\circ} 0'$) in Sirohi State, Rajputana. Mr. Coulson inspected two old pits about 2 miles north-north-west of Rohera but could find no trace of either gold or pyrites. He was given a specimen said to have been taken from one of the pits about 25 years ago, but it contained only the following minerals:—pyrite associated with a little chalcopyrite, quartz, muscovite, sillimanite and accessory apatite.

Sirohi State ; Raj-
putana.

Graphite.

A very small quantity of graphite was observed by Sub-Assistant B. B. Gupta in a vein intersecting gneissose granite in the stream-course $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles E. S. E. of Yeu, in the Yamethin district of Burma.

Yamethin district ;
Burma.

Iron.

Hæmatitic iron ore was found on the hill 1 mile 5 furlongs S.E. of Kundaw in the Yamethin district of Burma. The ore appears to have originated from a metasomatic replacement of the quartzites, and is associated with galena.

Yamethin district ;
Burma.

Mr. Coulson notes that iron ores have been recorded in the Bundi State, Rajputana, from Loharpura ($25^{\circ} 28' : 75^{\circ} 42'$), Bhaironpura ($25^{\circ} 31' : 75^{\circ} 45'$), and a second village named Loharpura ($25^{\circ} 33' : 75^{\circ} 58'$). The ore occurs at the junction between the Jhiri shales

Bundi State ; Raj-
putana.

and the Upper Rewah sandstone. In the Gwalior old mines occur at Umar ($25^{\circ} 41' : 75^{\circ} 30'$), Khenia ($25^{\circ} 20' : 75^{\circ} 25'$), Narenpur ($25^{\circ} 28' : 75^{\circ} 32'$) and Datunda ($25^{\circ} 27' : 75^{\circ} 30'$). The ore consists of impure limonite and hæmatite derived from solutions accompanying the reef-quartz. The supply and quality of the ore is totally insufficient for modern purposes.

In the remote past large quantities of iron were extracted from the highly ferruginous quartz breccia which is of common occurrence

Mewar State ; Rajputana.

among the rocks of the Jahazpur and Sabalpura areas in the Mewar State of Rajputana.

The workings have long been abandoned on account of the comparative cheapness of imported iron. There are still immense quantities of the ferruginous breccia *in situ*, but the extraction of the iron must necessarily be unprofitable in view of the dearth of fuel for smelting. Wood was used in days gone by, but the amount now available is quite insufficient for the purpose, and Mr. Bradshaw, who visited the areas, considers that there are no immediate prospects of successful economic development.

Kaolin.

The exploitation of the china clay E. of Indawgyi in the Letkakwe Stream about 6 miles south of Myohla in the Yamethin district of Burma (*Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, vol. LI, pp. 14-15) has not proved commercially successful.

Yamethin district ; Burma.

Kaolin in small quantities was noted near Kuditanapalli about 2 miles north of Gudupalli railway station in the North Arcot district.

North Arcot, Madras.

Mr. Coulson found kaolin at Manak Chok ($25^{\circ} 33' : 75^{\circ} 57'$) in the Bundi State, Rajputana, at the junction of the Jhiri shales with the Upper Rewah sandstone. It was of very poor quality and economically worthless.

Bundi State, Rajputana.

Kyanite.

(See Sillimanite.)

Lead.

During the latter part of June 1925 Mr. E. L. G. Clegg was deputed to examine an area in the Mawson or Bawzaing State of the Myelat division of the Southern Shan States.

Southern Shan States and to collect samples of lead ore and lead slag from the locality. The area has been previously described by E. J. Jones¹ and C. S. Middlemiss², and Dr. Coggin Brown has recently summarised their reports.³ It consists of rocks of the Plateau Limestone formation, a series of dolomitic limestones, probably of lower Palæozoic age, having intercalated in them lenticular arenaceous beds grading into purple shales. The limestones are slightly fossiliferous but no specifically identifiable forms have as yet been extracted from them. The dip of the limestones varies and, although a south-westerly one prevails, in many localities the limestones are seen to be almost horizontal.

The area is at present under development by Messrs. Steele Bros. and the Shan States Silver Lead Corporation; two mining leases however are still held over small areas by local inhabitants.

Mining was originally carried out by Chinese and Shan miners and the lines of old workings which are reputed to be more ancient than those of Bawdwin in the Northern Shan States, cover an extensive area and run in a direction 10° — 15° W. of N., the general strike of the geological features of the Shan Plateau. Mineralisation has apparently taken place in a series of more or less parallel and intersecting veins, fissures and joints along this strike and can be traced southwards for a distance of more than 33 miles.

In one old working which Mr. Clegg examined half a mile S. W. by S. of the village of Pakin, the occurrence of galena in yellow clay approximates to that of an irregular stock-work, whilst in the Bawzaing Mine of the Shan States Silver Lead Corporation the ore occurs as an elongated and irregular lenticle replacing what seems originally to have been shattered and brecciated limestone.

Silver was the only mineral in which the ancient Shans and Chinese had any interest, and in various localities, in which smelting was carried out, are quantities of lead slag in which the percentage of

¹ *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XX, pp. 191-194.

² *Gen. R. p. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, 1889-1900, pp. 122-153.

³ *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.* Vol. LVI, pp. 90-91

lead runs as high as 43. The slag is disseminated through the soil cap and is at present being exploited by Messrs. Steele Bros. who ship it to Europe as an ore of lead.

The following analyses of concentrated ore from the Bawsaing Mine of the Shan States Silver Lead Corporation and of slag from the localities cited were carried out in the laboratory of the Geological Survey of India :

LOCALITIES.

- A. Lead slag from 1 mile west of Pakin.
- B. Lead slag from Ywahaung village.
- C. Lead slag from $\frac{1}{2}$ mile east of Tethein village.
- D. Lead slag from Naung Lwe.
- E.) Lead slag from bags in Messrs. Steele Bros.' godown at Heho.
- F.)
- G. Lead ore concentrate from the Bawsaing mine of the Shan States Silver Lead Corporation.

LEAD SLAGS.

Dry Assays.

	1.	2.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
A	40.36.	40.10.
B	37.00.	35.56.
C	41.18.	39.56.
D	23.04.	24.38.
E	36.50.	36.26.
F	38.22.	37.28.

Average 35.79 per cent. of lead.

Wet Assays.

	Per cent.
A	40.83.
B	38.375.
C	39.837.
D	24.319.
E	37.68.
F	36.344.

Average 36.247 per cent. of lead.

ORE CONCENTRATE, BAWSAING MINES.

Dry Assays.

	1.	2.	3.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
G	70.04	70.12	69.76

Average 69.97 per cent. of lead.

Wet Assays.

G. 72.575 per cent. of lead.

Silver in oz. per ton.

1.	2.	3.
15.626	15.05	15.196
Average 15.287 oz. per ton of ore concentrate.		

The analyses of slag call for some comment as it will be seen from the tables that, whilst that from one locality yields only 24 per cent. lead, all the other localities show percentages of 36 and over. This probably explains the greatly varying analyses which Messrs. Steele Bros. Ltd. have experienced in successive shipments to Europe, and it appears as though a systematic sampling of the lead slags from the various collecting localities in the area would greatly benefit the exporters, since at present a shipment of lead slag having a high lead content is purely fortuitous.

Galena has been obtained in quartz veins intersecting the Chaung-Yamethin district; Magyi series in the following localities in the Burma. Yamethin district of Burma:—

1. $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles E. S. E. of Dathwe.
2. $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles N. E. of Sedo in a tributary of the Mellang Chaung.
3. $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles N. E. of Kyatpye; this is not *in situ*, but the parent rock is probably 1 furlong S. E. of Δ 2641.
4. $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles E. S. E. of Yeu in a granite vein in the stream-course; this is not *in situ*.
5. On the hill 1 mile 5 furlongs S. E. of Kundaw; in association with iron ore.

In the first locality Sub-Assistant B. B. Gupta notes that the vein is about 10 feet and in the second about 12 feet wide. Traces of silver were present in the ore from the first locality.

Limestone.

Limestone is quarried for building purposes from the hill 2 miles 85° E. of N. from Taungbotha in the Yamethin district of Burma.

Yamethin district; It is described by Sub-Assistant B. B. Gupta as a
Burma. medium-grained greyish limestone sometimes interbanded with white, rather coarse-grained crystalline limestone. It contains nearly 15 per cent. of magnesium.

The Lower Bhandar limestone in Bundi State, Rajputana, is the stone used by the Bundi Portland Cement Works. It gives an admirable cement and certain beds are well suited for lime. The Upper Bhandar limestone, in Mr. Coulson's opinion, offers great possibilities for economic development.

**Bundi State ;
Rajputana.**

The limestones of Sirohi State, Rajputana have considerable economic importance. At present, those in the neighbourhood of Abu Road are being developed. Numerous lime kilns can be seen around Murthala ($24^{\circ} 31' : 72^{\circ} 51'$) and the lime is railed to various localities. The stone is also used for building purposes and for railway ballast.

**Sirohi State ; Raj-
putana.**

According to Mr. A. L. Coulson the quality of the limestones varies greatly and intrusive rocks have greatly deteriorated their value. Where a product of commercial purity is needed, impurities such as biotite, quartz, etc., would probably prevent their application for the manufacture of cement.

Mica.

Mr. Coulson records a pegmatite containing muscovite of fair size, but too small and of too poor quality to be worked, 2 miles east of Sahela ($24^{\circ} 47' : 73^{\circ} 8'$) in Sirohi State, Rajputana.

**Sirohi State ; Raj-
putana.**

Petroleum.

With regard to the prospects of obtaining oil in the parts of Myingyan and Meiktila visited by Mr. Barber, it is thought that any of the less broken anticlines in the Pegu series might prove productive, but on the whole the prospects are not good. In the absence of satisfactory palaeontological evidence it was found impossible to refer these deposits to any exact horizon in the Pegu series, but they appear to be more estuarine in character than the productive rocks of Yenangyaung and other areas. The Lebya and Myinthadaung anticlines are much faulted, and therefore unlikely to prove productive, while many of the more favourable structures have been tested by various companies, so far without success.

**Myingyan and Meik-
tila districts ; Burma.**

Pyrites.

In association with galena, iron pyrites in appreciable quantity was found by Sub-Assistant B. B. Gupta $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles N. E. of Sedo and also at a place $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles N.E. of Kyatpye in the Yamethin district.

In the Forest Reserve, about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of Tanniar bungalow in the Polur *taluk* of the North Arcot district, a thin band of dark-looking fine-grained rock was found by Mr. Vinayak Rao among banded quartzites of the Dharwar system. Charnockites are found to the east of this, and the older gneisses to the west. An analysis by Mr. V. S. Rajagopalan has yielded the following result :—

Moisture	3.40
SiO ₂	19.35
Al ₂ O ₃	1.66
Fe	21.77
Fe ₂ O ₃	19.32
SO ₃	5.30
S	25.16
MgO94
CaO	Trace
Mn & Ni	Traces
Undetermined	3.10
									100.0

Saltpetre.

The sandy soil from the foot of the hillock 3 furlongs west of Sagyin in the Yamethin district of Burma on being analysed was found to contain potassium nitrate. It is reported that it appears on the surface as an efflorescence in certain seasons of the year, but when Sub-Assistant B. B. Gupta visited the locality no efflorescence was met with. It is reported to have been extracted from the soil and used during the Burmese war for the manufacture of gunpowder. Our attention was drawn to it by the Subdivisional Officer of Yamethin, Mr. K. M. Yin, who sent Mr. Gupta a sample of soil from Yindaw ($20^{\circ} 43'$; $93^{\circ} 56\frac{1}{2}'$) in the same district which also contained potassium nitrate

Silica Sand.

A mile south of Barodhia ($25^{\circ} 29' : 75^{\circ} 37'$) in Bundi State Rajputana, a grit has been noted which crumbles to a sand on the application of very slight pressure and which might be utilized for the purposes of glass manufacture.

Bundi State ; Raj-putana.

Sillimanite.

During a mineral reconnaissance of Bamra State, Bihar and Orissa, by Mr. H. Cecil Jones and Dr. Krishnan, some bands of kyanite-sillimanite schist were discovered and may prove of economic importance, but until large samples of the material have been tested practically it is not possible to obtain an idea of its value. From a microscopic examination of the material some of the bands appear to be fairly pure. These schists occur in two widely separated areas, both of which are at long distances from a railway ; the latter fact may prove a serious objection to their being of economic value at the present time. One of these deposits was found by Mr. Jones near Palsama ($21^{\circ} 17' : 84^{\circ} 55'$) and the other was found by Dr. Krishnan near Balram (Ballam) ($21^{\circ} 32' : 84^{\circ} 52'$).

Bamra State; Bihar and Orissa.

“ Soap Sand.”

Sapya or Sand Soap was observed in the Meiktila, Myingyan and Sagaing districts, occurring as an efflorescence over the softer sandstones of the whole area. It is collected locally for use as a soap, and is composed mainly of sodium hydroxide and calcium carbonate.

Upper Burma.

Steatite.

Steatite was found in small quantity in the limestone on the hill 2 miles E. of Taungbotha in the Yamethin district of Burma. It is supposed to have been derived from the magnesium carbonate, which the limestone contains. The quantity so far obtained is not promising from an economic point of view.

Yamethin district ; Burma.

In the Jeoria village ($25^{\circ} 26' : 75^{\circ} 5'$) area, about one mile north of Kakralio ($25^{\circ} 24' : 75^{\circ} 6'$) good steatite is mined on a small scale.

Mewar State ; Raj-
putana. The country rock is a buff, dolomitic limestone dipping north at 80° . Just north of the mine

there is a low hill of buff chert, probably derived from siliceous replacement of the limestone. The occurrence, according to Mr. Bradshaw, is more in the nature of a pocket than a vein, and occurs at the junction of the limestone with the chert. The pocket is about 50-60 feet broad, and has been worked, by an open cut, to a depth of about 40 feet. The overburden is negligible. The first-grade material consists of a pure, pearly-white rock ; the second grade is blotched with grey ; the rest is dark and unsaleable. The output of the mine was from 50 to 60 *maunds* per diem. Of this 20 to 25 *maunds* are of first grade and the rest second-grade material. The third-grade is not included in the daily output. Operations were discontinued during the monsoon of 1925.

In view of the mode of occurrence, the body is not likely to be continuous for any distance ; on the other hand, there is the possibility of the occurrence of steatite in any place where the ferruginous limestone is both dolomitic and siliceous. The steatite is of excellent quality, and has distinct economic possibilities. The mine is about 22 miles from Bhilwara Railway Station.

Tin.

Many tin mines are worked in the sheets of the Mergui district surveyed by Mr. Sethu Rama Rau, and are distributed in two areas, one on the mainland comprising the tin mines of Karathuri, Klong, Banhuni, Klong Yung, Klong Nam Noi, Pre Sai, Klong Lama, Klong Sai Den, Maliwun, etc., and the other in the islands fringing the coast, the most important mines of which are in the islands of Lumpi and Pulo Bada.

On the mainland the tin ore is obtained from alluvial flats, the ore being derived from tourmaline-muscovite-cassiterite pegmatites, and cassiterite-bearing quartz veins closely associated with bosses of granite and pegmatite lenticles ; in the islands it comes from cassiterite-iron-oxide-bearing quartz veins. Mr. Sethu Rama Rau is of

the opinion that the following areas might be advantageously prospected :—

- (1) The whole belt of country from the source of Klong Nam Noi—Pre Sai in survey sheet 96 $\frac{J}{TT}$ northwards to Kadin at the source of Kyaukpon Chaung in sheet 96 $\frac{J}{g}$.
- (2) The alluvial flats north of Bankachon from mile 16 to mile 18 on the Victoria Point—Maliwun road.
- (3) The country adjoining the Kayang area in Lumpi island.
- (4) The north coast of Pulo Bada island.

Water (*see also* Engineering Questions).

Mr. J. A. Dunn was asked to report on a new well site at Hinu 4 miles from Ranchi. The present pumping station and well are supplying water to the Hindu Clerk's Quarters belonging to the Secretariat, and to the Accountant General's Office. **Ranchi; Bihar and Orissa.** A considerable increase in the number of buildings in these quarters is proposed, and water will also probably be required for the adjacent Duranda Residential Staff quarters.

The present well on the south bank of the Bhusur (or Pundag) Nadi, just north of Hinu village, is inadequate even for present purposes during the dry season, and the consumption of water has to be restricted. To increase the supply a channel or drain has been built from the side of the well diagonally across the stream bed on the granite bottom, so that the seepage in the stream-bed may be added to the well.

Some 200 yards to the west of the well and at a sharp bend in the stream, is a bar of granite-gneiss across the river. The river bed on the well side, or to the east of this bar, is about 8 feet below the bed of the stream on the upstream side, a considerable drop for this small stream. In the dry season, therefore, the water in the deep sand of the stream-bed above this bar is held up and there is very little seepage through the bar to the bed of the stream below. To the east of the well there are also a number of granite outcrops in the bed of the stream, so that in the dry season the well is really drawing water from the very short and narrow basin of sand in the stream below the bar. The result is that the supply of water in this well in the dry season amounts to little more than

what is held in the sand of this short stretch of stream-course after the surface water runs dry, *plus* any additional water that may seep in from the surrounding fields. The depth of this sand ranges up to 8 feet.

On investigating the stream-bed immediately above the granite bar, Mr. Dunn found that at the sharp bend the stream had at one time cut quite deeply along the south bank, and that the bed here was filled with sand down to at least 8 feet, and saturated with water. A deep channel saturated with water could be traced upstream either in the centre of the stream-course or towards the south bank, but the deepest point was clearly at the bend immediately above the bar. The well should accordingly be sunk on the south bank at this point and a drain run out from the side of the well into the river, as has been done in the case of the present well. It will be possible to pump this well from the present pumping station by means of a pipe line.

For many years attention has been given to the subject of the amelioration of the water shortage at Chalisgaon Railway Station, Great Indian Peninsula Railway. In spite of **Chalisgaon ; Bombay.** great efforts and a large expenditure of time and money, the supply of water for railway purposes still remains unreliable and insufficient, and at present water is being bought from the possessors of good wells a mile or so away from the station.

About five years ago, a dam was built across the Ar river just below the double loop near Warthan (or Wulta) seven miles south of Chalisgaon. Owing partly to lack of sufficient geological information at that time, the dam, although established on a solid rock-foundation in the stream-bed, failed to secure rock or even impervious material for the foundations of its abutments. Wing walls were, subsequently, carried 300 feet on each side into the banks. But even these failed to find rock at a level above the stream-bed. The material encountered was invariably conglomerate, gravel or open-textured débris, highly calcareous, irregularly bedded and exceedingly porous, and ranging from 20 to 40 feet in thickness.

As Dr. Fox, who has been in charge of these investigations, remarks, it is not surprising, therefore, that leakage takes place round the ends of the wing walls. Some of this seepage water finds its

way back to the Ar river below the dam—often in copious springs just below the dam. A far larger quantity of this infiltrating water simply disappears into the thick alluvial débris and, gravitating along its conglomeratic basal zone, eventually emerges far down the valley into the various streams which converge on Borkheda.

Water, as a gravity supply, is available from the Warthan reservoir, after a good monsoon, up to the end of March. From the middle of April to the next refilling of the reservoir, no water is passed down the pipe line. Recent measurements below the dam show that there has been a diminution in the leakage from around the wing walls of the dam back to the Ar river. Hopes are entertained that the silt carried into the alluvium by the infiltrating water is slowly sealing up the interstitial spaces and thus improving the water-tightness of the basin, but there are reasons for believing that leakage channels are enlarging in other directions. In spite of the good rainfall in 1924, the reservoir became so depleted by April 15th in 1925 that no water could be passed into the pipe-line. This is not the only evidence indicative of a marked deflection of the sub-soil drainage since the dam was built. Previous to the building of the dam there was a fair hot-weather stream-flow in the Ar (Dongri) river at Chalisgaon. This evidently represented sub-soil water under the bed of the stream which had been caused to emerge by the outcrop of rock across the river below Chalisgaon. The hot-weather flow must have then been sufficiently attractive to justify the expense incurred in building the head-works and cutting the canal which a few years ago irrigated the tract west of Patunda. Dr. Fox notes that since the dam and its wing walls were built, the sub-soil seepage has been deflected into the main mass of the Ar alluvium, and the stream-flow at the head-works of the Takli canal reduced to a mere trickle. As a result, the Takli-Patunda irrigation scheme has been overtaken by disaster, and the works have been allowed to fall into disrepair for lack of water in the hot months. It may take several years more for the alluvium to absorb all the water it can hold before the stream-flow at Chalisgaon regains its past volume. It is possible that, with the increased height of the ground water level in the alluvium at Warthan, the seepage water may emerge elsewhere and not back into the Ar valley. In the circumstances, Dr. Fox is disinclined to suggest further experiments at the Warthan dam for at least 10 years.

The alluvium discovered in founding the Warthan dam is now known to be extensive. It stretches northward to beyond Chalisgaon and spreads into the valleys of the Titur

The Older Alluvium. and Utvali. Its thickness does not appear to be more than 40 feet, but this dimension has not been tested at many places. It appears to be thickest on the watershed between the Titur and the Ar. It is almost entirely absent from the bed of the Titur and it is thin or wanting in the stream-course of the Ar. The basal layers, wherever uncovered, at the Warthan dam, at the confluence of the Ar with the Titur, etc., are usually a conglomerate composed of basalt nodules and rounded geodic fragments set in a calcareous matrix. Above this are irregularly bedded layers of gravelly *kankar* and calcareous gritty clays—all highly porous.

It is peculiar that this alluvium ends rather abruptly on a line parallel to and south of the course of the Titur. From the Titur northward amygdaloidal basalt and other types are exposed, and the ground rises steadily to the watershed on which the railroad runs north-eastward from Rohini through Chalisgaon to near Galna.

The occurrence of basalt close under the stream-bed at the Warthan dam and its appearance at the confluence of the Ar with the Titur suggests that the trap surface slopes northward. An exposure of bedded alluvium near the "6" of 1076 on the west bank of the Ar at Chalisgaon (see 1-inch Survey sheet No. 46, p. 3) shows a dip of 10° to the south-west. From occasional, though poor, exposures, Dr. Fox was led to believe that the traps also dip gently in this direction.

Two years ago, Rao Bahadur M. Vinayak Rao made a hurried geological examination of the country around Chalisgaon and located a well on the watershed between the Ar and the Titur rivers within a mile of their confluence. At present, water is being pumped from a private well, Narayan Bankat's well, in this vicinity. At about the same time, 1923, the services of a water diviner were obtained with a view to fixing a site for a railway well. Three sites were successively chosen. In No. 1, an existing well known as Ebrahim's well, on the high ground half way between Kotegaon and the Titur, 30 feet of alluvium had been proved. The well was deepened, still in alluvium, and an infiltration heading driven from the bottom. A pumping test showed the well to have a slow recovery. On No. 2, nearer to the Titur and close to the pipe line, a new well was dug to a depth of 33 feet entirely in alluvium; the recuperative test was

most unpromising. No. 3 site, still closer to the Titur and beyond the pipe line, was near the margin of the alluvium. A well sunk here encountered 16 feet of alluvium, and then struck Trap; it was carried down to a total depth of 48 feet, but the recuperative test was disappointing.

From the straightness of the Alluvium-Trap boundary along the south side of the Titur river, it is permissible to suspect a fault or at least a somewhat steep bank along which a buried stream-course may be conjectured. The greatest quantity of underground water would be tapped if this stream-course could be "hit" by a well or boring. The best line for getting this result would be along the line of the watershed between the Titur and Ar rivers which is the line suggested by Mr. Vinayak Rao.

In the circumstances, Dr. Fox considers it worth while putting down two or three bore-holes southward from No. 3 site to prove the depth of the alluvium and the outline of the rock surface. If the data indicate the presence of the supposed "bank" Dr. Fox recommends a heading to be driven for some distance from the bottom of No. 3 well and a charge of dynamite exploded to open up the fissures. If no such bank or irregularity in the *infra*-alluvial rock surface be demonstrated, a deepening of No. 2 well is recommended.

Had there been no restrictions of any kind, Dr. Fox would have chosen a site exactly between Narayan Bankat's well and the confluence of the Titur and Ar rivers for the first bore-hole, and would then have put in a line of holes 30 feet apart on a south-east to north-west alignment towards each stream. From the section thus obtained the deepest place in the alluvium would be the best in this neighbourhood. Experiences at Bhusawal, Akola and other places are enough to explode any hope of artesian water from deep borings in the Trap in quantities which are likely to be attractive.

As a result of Dr. Fox's investigation and report in 1923, the Panjhan River (Gravity) Project was abandoned. Search further away from Manmad has since failed to discover a suitable site for a storage dam from above which the impounded water could be run as a gravity supply to Manmad.

In consequence of the urgency for a satisfactory supply of water for engine purposes in Manmad, it has now been decided to re-

consider the question of obtaining water by pumping. A pumping scheme had, several years ago, been suggested in connection with the building of a dam on the Sakhi river. The site lies 11 miles east of Manmad, just half a mile south of mile 171 on the main line, and at an elevation of roughly 250 feet below that of Manmad. The distance and the "head" were unattractive factors. It was, however, estimated that a 60-foot dam, if built in the gorge immediately above the village of Mandwar, would secure a catchment of nearly 34 square miles, on which the rainfall would be about the same as that at Manmad—22 inches annual average.

Recent surveys and gaugings have shown that a 60-foot dam above Mandwar would enclose a reservoir basin having a storage capacity of over 1,400 million gallons. Allowing the top 5 feet depth for losses by evaporation and absorption—a volume equal to 350 million gallons—the available supply from the reservoir would, theoretically, be upwards of 1,050 million gallons. The estimated demand for Manmad is less than half a million gallons a day, giving a total of barely 150 million gallons a year, so that the water impounded would be equivalent to a several years supply for Manmad from a single filling of the reservoir.

In view of the possibility of such an abundance of water, and the fact, newly emerged, that the cost of pumping by modern plant is not unduly heavy, the Sakhi Scheme has much to be said in its favour. It is understood that water impounded at Mandwar would be utilized as a gravity supply for Nandgaon, six miles down the line. It is thus evident, that if the estimated quantity could be secured by the dam, a gravity project for an additional quarter million gallons a day, could be established for Nandgaon.

In addition to these considerations, it is hoped that, in the near future, the Railway Electrification Scheme, now being extended inland from Bombay, will be carried as far as Nandgaon. If this be done, and the Mandwar dam actually impound the calculated volume of water, it will not be necessary to water locomotives at Manmad. All engines requiring water could draw their supplies at Nandgaon. The present water-supply of Manmad would, perhaps with a little deepening of the existing reservoir there, be sufficient for the projected needs of Manmad under the remodelling scheme. The pumping plant at Mandwar could be dismantled as the whole of the reservoir water would be available as a very satis-

factory gravity supply for the then greatly increased requirements of Nandgaon.

From what has been conjectured it is evident that the Sakhi River scheme is worthy of a detailed examination from the meteorological and the geological aspects. For this purpose Dr. Fox was deputed to revisit the area and submit a further report.

The determination of the rainfall and its range of fluctuations, the estimation of evaporation losses, and the measurement of the run-off flow from the catchment, are being carried out by the engineers of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

The average annual rainfall for Manmad (period 1890-1919) was 22.12 inches so that the rainfall for 1924, i.e., 23.57 inches is about the average. The erratic nature of the rainfall in this region is well known, heavy falls being precipitated in full view of places quite unaffected. This capriciousness may explain the lower rainfall on the Sakhi catchment which is usually not much more than 15 inches.

From the figures which were obtained in the stream gauging operations, the actual run-off discharge for the catchment is $192.120 \times 6.25 = 1,200.75$ million gallons. This quantity, if it can be stored, would be ample for the needs of Manmad and Nandgaon, calculated at $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ million gallons a day respectively, for 21 months (638 days). The supply for this period would be 480 million gallons leaving some 720 million gallons over to meet losses by evaporation etc. for two years. As it is improbable that the "Rains" would fail absolutely for two successive years the project seems assured from the meteorological aspect.

In the event of two or more successive years of normal or good rainfall the reservoir must overflow to discharge the surplus water. This flood or storm water is, it is understood, to be dealt with partly through a spill-way to the east of the dam, and partly by a cascade over the dam. The question of scour in the thick alluvium just below the dam is one of the questions to be considered in the geological aspects of the scheme.

Dr. Fox reports that throughout the area under consideration from Manmad to Rohini, there is generally only a thin covering of soil, except locally in stream-beds and banks. The ground slopes quickly from the Ajanta scarp and then flattens for a considerable distance from Mandwar. The underlying rock on the

catchment is bedded, soft, amygdaloidal and vesicular basalt. It is only on the higher grounds such as that on each side of the gorge at the site of the dam that fissured doleritic basalt is clearly seen.

The above considerations would lead to the conclusion that the rocks of the catchment are more or less impervious. However, these partially decomposed traps absorb water and heat so that evaporation losses from the land surfaces must be large. As a result of these factors, light showers of rain, aggregating less than one inch in 24 hours, might be entirely lost by evaporation and absorption, except when the rate of precipitation is rapid.

In Dr. Fox's opinion the allowance of the top 5 feet depth of the full reservoir should be enough to meet the evaporation and absorption losses from the water-spread, *i.e.*, when the reservoir is filled. The water-tightness of the basin, so far as can be seen, appears to be good, but in so important a scheme caution is desirable and the basin should be tested with trial pits.

It is imperative that the trench on the line of the dam should be taken down to solid rock so that the dam may have this material for its foundation throughout. Dr. Fox thinks that rock will be met with at shallow depths in the sides of the gorge. Clay may possibly be found in digging the foundations of the dam, and the temptation to remove it for use in the dam may arise. The temptation to remove this clay need not arise if the dam is built wholly of masonry. An earth-dam with a masonry core wall is seldom as water-tight as an earth-dam with a puddled clay core wall. The last type is impracticable because to obtain suitable clay the country side for a radius of 10 miles would have to be painstakingly scraped of its black cotton soil and dark red clay.

As regards the flood discharge, even with a masonry dam, there will be heavy scouring in the deep, soft alluvium below the dam if a big flood is passed. The saddle and lateral valley to the east are suggested as natural features suitable for a spill-way for all flood and storm water from the reservoir.

Owing to the short steep slopes on the scarp of the Ajanta Hills to the south and the low gradient of the stream-beds after they leave the hills, most of the silt will probably be deposited above the actual reservoir basin and silting will be trifling in the reservoir itself.

As regards the safety of the dam from displacements due to fault-movements or earth tremors, there seems little to fear.

Careful scrutiny in the vicinity of the dam site failed to discover any evidence of faulting which might affect the water tightness of the reservoir.

If reasonable care is exercised in building the dam, the scheme should prove successful as regards efficiency of storage. According to Dr. Fox it would be difficult to find an equally attractive site anywhere else in this region, except perhaps one for a bigger scheme on the Maniad River south-west of Pimparkhed Station.

During November and December 1924, Mr. W. D. West visited the Ahmedabad district and Kathiawar, in the Bombay Presidency,

Ahmedabad and Kathiawar; Bombay. in order to examine the cores obtained from four borings put down for purposes of water-supply. They were situated as follows:—(1)

Dhandhuka, in the Ahmedabad district; (2) Botad, in Bhavnagar State; (3) Jamnagar, in Nawanagar State; and (4) Satapur Bridge, near Dhrangadhra, Dhrangadhra State. Of these the Dhandhuka hole had passed through 292 feet of alluvium and 921 feet of Deccan Trap lavas, making a total of 1,213 feet from the surface: the Botad boring had pierced 501 feet of Deccan Trap lavas: the Jamnagar boring 781 feet of Deccan Trap lavas and the boring at Satapur Bridge 538 feet of Upper Gondwana sandstones with some carbonaceous beds, followed by 7 feet of dolerite, presumed to be a sill. Details of the rocks examined will be reserved until the completion of these borings: but it may be mentioned that the Deccan Trap lavas are all of basaltic composition, those from Dhandhuka and Jamnagar being mainly of ordinary types, whilst those of Botad are of an unusual type, being rich in fresh phenocrysts of olivine and augite, usually to the exclusion of phenocrysts of felspar. Some plant remains were collected from the carbonaceous beds of Satapur Bridge.

As in all cases on rocks of the Pegu and Irrawadian series the water-supply question in the Meiktila, Myingyan and Pakokku districts of Burma, presents insuperable difficulties.

Upper Burma. No satisfactory scheme is possible for providing a really adequate water-supply from tube wells owing to the underground water being charged with magnesium and sodium salts. Where the alluvium is thick, and the thickness can only be surmised at best, shallow tube wells may give a fairly good

supply but the location of such wells can only be arrived at by a process of trial and error. In the jungle, sweet and potable water can generally be obtained from wells sunk in the alluvium of river valleys or from wells sunk at the lower end of a stretch of paddy fields. This the local inhabitants are generally aware of and in all the cases in which the villagers called Mr. Clegg to their aid, he found that they had previously tried all the likely locations which he pointed out to them. Deep borings are useless as the water of both the Pegus and Passage Beds, and also of the Irrawadian is frequently saline and sulphatic. On the more shaly Pegu rocks open tanks sometimes provide the village supply, wells being sunk where possible in the low ground below the outlet end, the *band* then acting as a filter, but as this is only run-off water, it cannot naturally be relied on to any great extent.

The same conditions as the above apply to the whole of the dry zone of Upper Burma, and the only aid the geologist can give is to point out areas covered by alluvium and enjoin the local inhabitants to make shift as best they can by a process of trial and error, the relatively lowest ground being first essayed.

Mr. B. B. Gupta suggests two alternative schemes for the water-supply of Yamethin town: (1) the sinking of wells at Kadaung, a village some $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. of the Railway station, and (2) the utilisation of the water of the fall $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles N. E. of Yeu. In both cases the water would have to be carried to Yamethin by pipe-line. Deep tube wells are not likely to be successful in the town of Yamethin where the Irrawadian formation is suspected to be present at no great depth.

In the Pench valley in the Central Provinces the village water-supplies are obtained from the main rivers which drain the area.

Many of the villages are situated along the banks of the Pench and its main tributaries the Sukri and the Ghatamali Rivers, and during the dry weather water can be taken from the pools which occur at intervals in these streams. Mr. Gee observed that these pools vary with the strata, being found more regularly where the Motur clays outcrop, and again more noticeably on the upstream side of trap-dyke intrusions, several of which occur in the north eastern part of this area. The supply of villages not situated

near these rivers, or their tributaries is, however, drawn from wells. These are usually of no great depth, and as a result of the alternating character of the sandstone and clay beds a good supply of water is usually maintained. The beds, in general, dip to the north, so that any well sunk on the south side of one of the trap dykes yields a plentiful supply. Most of the sandstones of the area are apparently porous to a fair degree.

The area appears to have been affected by a number of faults, causing the repetition of the outcrops of the clays of the Motur series and these porous sandstones. This has apparently resulted in the prevention of the continued seepage of the underground water in the sandstone bands, the faulted clays sealing it off on the southern side of these clay outcrops so that wells sunk in the sandstones along these tracts should yield a good supply at a shallow depth.

In the area around the Tawa River of the Shahpur coalfield, and eastwards to the Chhindwara-Betul boundary, many of the villages depend on their water-supply from the Tawa River and its larger tributaries. The Tawa, during the early part of the year, before the rains, consists of a number of pools at intervals linked up by a mere stream meandering in the wide sandy bed of the river. Good water can be obtained from diggings sunk in this sandy river alluvium. Large pools occur throughout the year where trap-dykes crop out, and at other places where a hard bed of sandstone crops out across the river. For instance several lines of induration and silicification of the sandstones occur, following a general east-to-west strike, and deep pools are usually located in their vicinity. This is so in the Barakar and higher Gondwana beds. In the southern part of the Shahpur area the streams flowing over the Talchirs are fairly constant on account of the impermeability of the clays. But some of these clays, those of the Middle Talchirs, cropping out around Ratamati and south of the Sonada ridge appear to be very porous and a deficiency of surface water is noted in the hot weather. The water is then usually obtained from wells sunk in the Talchir clays, and when a more impervious band is met with a good supply is often maintained. This is similarly evidenced in the Talchir area around Khapa and Bhata in the eastern portion of the area.

To the north of the Sonada ridge, the red and green Motur clays being intercalated in the porous sandstones, those villages which do not obtain their supply from the Suk Tawa and its tributaries are kept well supplied with good water from wells. This was

especially noted at Bandabira near Sonada where a well on the lower ground between the village and the Suk Tawa River, was, during the month of March, full of water to within 3 feet of the surface.

In connection with the water-supply of the Khyber, Dr. Fox is confident that water should be encountered near Landi Khana.

Khyber Railway; N.-W. Frontier. There is some doubt about the porosity or otherwise of the shales and limestones, but

he recommends the sinking of a well at the confluence of the stream courses east of Landi Kotal. If this stream-well fails to produce a large supply of water at a shallow depth, it will mean that the limestones are water-bearing, in which case a deep boring put down to these limestones should prove successful.

GEOLOGICAL SURVEYS.

During the field season 1924-25, the Bihar and Orissa party consisted of Mr. H. Cecil Jones, in charge, Mr. J. A. Dunn, Dr. M. S. Krishnan and Sub-Assistant L. A. Narayana Iyer.

Bihar and Orissa.

Mr. Jones, whom Dr. Krishnan accompanied for training, carried out a mineral investigation of the Bamra State, during the course of which a preliminary geological survey was made. The rocks occurring in the State are mainly gneisses, schists and quartzites of Archæan age. In the north of the State typical micaceous and hornblendic Dharwar schists together with quartzites occur. Thin veins of pegmatite and quartz run through the gneiss and Dharwar rocks, but the quartz veins are usually barren and the pegmatite consists of quartz and felspar with black tourmaline or muscovite mica. The tourmaline and mica are usually small in amount, and the latter is not of much economic importance.

Bamra State ; Bihar and Orissa.

In the eastern part of the State are nearly horizontal massive well-bedded quartzites with interbedded trap flows; these appear to be of Cuddapah age. In the extreme south-west and south-east corners of the State are Gondwana rocks. These consist mainly of Talchir sandstones and shales and of Mahadeva conglomerates. None of the Gondwana coal-bearing beds were seen, and there seems little hope of finding coal in the State.

Mr. J. A. Dunn continued his work in the Singhbhum district on Survey Sheets 73 $\frac{F}{10}$, $\frac{F}{6}$, $\frac{F}{3}$, $\frac{F}{2}$ and $\frac{F}{1}$ completing his survey in this part of the district. The greater number of the rocks are again regional metamorphics, but quite a large area of unmetamorphosed representatives of the Iron Ore series was covered. The Chakradharpur granite-gneiss is again an important type. A relatively small granite mass in the Girga Reserved Forest was met with, and the boundary of the Chota Nagpur granite-gneiss also touched upon. The most important outcome of the season's work has been the demonstration that the Dalma Volcanic series with the associated phyllites and mica schists of north Singhbhum belong to the Iron Ore series. The gradual metamorphism of the unaltered Iron Ore series types in the Kolhan, as they are followed west, both along the strike and across the dip, is, according to Mr. Dunn, remarkably clear. The zone of thrust-faulting between the metamorphics of north Singhbhum and the unaltered Iron Ore series, noted the two previous years, gives place to acute folding as it is followed to the west, on the western side of the Chakradharpur granite-gneiss. It is the presence of this thrust zone which seems to have been responsible for the correlation of the metamorphics to the north with the Older Metamorphics underlying the Iron Ore series in south Singhbhum.

The Iron Ore series may be divided into two lithological types, a sedimentary and fragmental on the one hand, and an igneous type of volcanic origin on the other. The sedimentary type varies from unaltered shales with occasional sandstones to highly metamorphic rocks, such as mica schists containing minerals like garnet, cordierite, staurolite, kyanite, sillimanite and piedmontite. All stages in this metamorphism may be noted both along the strike and across the dip. Volcanic tuffs are frequently found associated with the sedimentary types, and there is no doubt that many of the shales and phyllites consist in reality of fine volcanic dust.

For the most part, the volcanic flows appear to occur at the top of the Iron Ore series, but in several places there are interbedded phyllites of sedimentary or fragmental origin. At least no Iron Ore rocks of sedimentary origin have been found to overlies the thick series of volcanic flows. It seems possible that whereas in south Singhbhum the period was one almost purely of continual sedi-

mentation, in north Singhbhum the latter part of the period was one of pronounced vulcanism.

The general strike of the whole series is approximately east and west, with acute overfolding from the north, but successive, west-pitching, geo-isoclinal folds have brought the western extension of the outcrops of the Dalma Volcanic flows to a progressively more southern position. In the north-west portion of the area folding has been extremely acute, although remarkably regular, and this, combined with the fact that the flows commence to be separated by intercalated phyllites as they reached their limit, has made the mapping exceedingly complicated. It is in this portion of the area also that the metamorphism becomes more severe.

In the Singhbhum district Mr. Dunn finds at least three distinct periods of basic igneous activity, all probably within Archæan times, the hornblende schists of the Older Metamorphic series being the earliest known and the Dalma Volcanics being the second in order of age. The Newer Dolerites, so abundant as dykes in the Singhbhum granite, may possibly be Cuddapah in age, although there is good evidence for assigning them also to the Archæan.

The succession in Singhbhum put forward by Mr. Dunn is as follows :—

- | | | | | |
|--|---|----------|---|----------|
| 5. Newer Dolerite (altering to
epidiorite)—Cuddapah or earlier. | } | Dharwar. | } | Archæan. |
| 4. Granites. | | | | |
| 3. Ultrabasic igneous rocks. | | | | |
| 2. Iron Ore series with the Dalma
Volcanic flows at the top. | | | | |
| 1. Older Metamorphics. | | | | |

Sub-Assistant L. A. Narayana Iyer worked under Mr. J. A. Dunn in S. E. Singhbhum and in the Porahat Government Estate.

During the 1924-25 field season the Burma Party of the Geological Survey of India consisted of Mr. E. L. G. Clegg, (in charge) Rao Bahadur Sethu Rama Rau, the late Captain F. W. Walker, Mr. C. T. Barber and Sub-Assistant B. B. Gupta. With the exception of Rao Bahadur Sethu Rama Rau who continued the geological survey of the Mergui

district, the whole party was engaged in work on the Tertiary rocks of Upper Burma.

Mr. E. L. G. Clegg working in the Meiktila, Myingyan and Sa-gaing districts on the north side of the Thazi-Myingyan line, in an area bounded on the north and west by the Irrawaddy River and on the south and east by latitude 21° and longitude 96° respectively, completed parts of sheets 84 $\frac{0}{6}$, $\frac{0}{9}$, $\frac{0}{10}$, $\frac{0}{11}$, $\frac{0}{12}$, $\frac{0}{13}$, $\frac{0}{14}$, $\frac{0}{15}$, and $\frac{0}{16}$.

Sheets 84 $\frac{0}{10}$ and $\frac{0}{14}$ in the centre of the area had been previously surveyed in the 1912-13 field season by Mr. Datta who had divided the rocks into Irrawadian and Pegus, classifying the Pegus as belonging to the old Yenangyaungian sub-division, Dr. Cotter, to the south, classed the whole series as upper Pegus owing to the lack of any definite boundary, although he recognised the Irrawadian characteristics of the uppermost rocks.

Continuing northwards Mr. Clegg has mapped three divisions:—

Irrawadian.

Passage Beds.

Pegus.

No distinct boundaries occur between these three series which are generally conformable, but the Irrawadian is very arenaceous and usually consists of fawn-coloured false-bedded sandstones which contain an abundance of fossil wood; shales occur only locally as lenticles, whilst grits with quartz pebbles up to half-an-inch in diameter are occasionally met. One or two small areas which Mr. Clegg was at first tempted to map as old alluvium differ from the above in consisting of *kankar*-impregnated, arenaceous and laminated clays. In the latter in an area mapped by Mr. Gupta about 4 miles west of Yamethin, the pronounced dip which occurs, makes one more inclined to class them as a late phase of the Irrawadian.

The Pegu rocks consist of an alternating series of sandstones and shales in which the former predominate. The included sandstones are harder and more compact, contain thin calcareous bands and are less falsely bedded than those of the Irrawadian, whilst in isolated localities marine fossils specifically unidentifiable were collected from them. The shales of the series vary greatly in both colour and texture, ranging from fawn to steel-grey in colour and from fine aluminous to coarse arenaceous clays in composition and texture. Selenite is occasionally found in them in small quantity.

The Passage Bed series was introduced after consultation with the other members of the party to distinguish rocks which, owing to the rarity of exposures, the lack of fossils and the lithological similarity of the rocks in the exposures seen to both Irrawadian and Pegu types, could not be satisfactorily classified. Some such division as this seems inevitable—at any rate as a temporary scheme—if the rocks are to be divided at all. In the type areas of these rocks in the Irrawaddy river valley south of Singu, the divisor between Pegu and Irrawadian is represented by either a red earth bed or a ferruginous conglomerate, indicative of an unconformity, that is a temporary halt in the process of sedimentation, whilst in the area mapped by Mr. Clegg, no such red bed is present. Although possessing occasional local unconformity, the beds shew a general change from marine to fresh-water conditions.

The rocks are folded into a series of broken anticlines and synclines arranged "*en échelon*" on a strike which varies from N.W.—S.E. in the south of the area to due N.—S. in the north. The crests of the anticlines form the intermittent hill ranges and are seen as isolated peaks and "hogsbacks," Taungtha Hill being the highest and most characteristic, although other hills approximating to it are found running N. by W. from Natogyi, and from east of the village of Myotha south towards Meiktila. In the east of the area mapped low hills run N.—S. along longitude 96° and, south of Ava at the north end of this low hill range, much broken and contorted hard Pegu sandstones crop out and are unconformably overlain by Irrawadian gravels and sands. These Pegu sandstones were placed in the Sitsayan division of the Pegus by Mr. Datta but no palæontological evidence has been obtained to substantiate the subdivision.

The distribution of the rocks follows the topography, broken anticlines of Pegu rocks forming the hill ranges and Irrawadian the intervening valleys. The curious manner in which the Pegu rocks of the middle part of the eastern flank of the Taungtha Hill range and the western flank of Mingontaung have been scoured away, points to river action and was probably accomplished by the Irrawaddy River whilst in the process of changing its course from the Samon Sittang valley to its present site. It is similar to the scouring which can be seen being carried out at present by the Irrawaddy River on the eastern flank of the north end of the Pyalo anticline below Thayetmyo.

The late Captain F. W. Walker carried out geological survey work in sheets 94 $\frac{A}{1}$, 85 $\frac{M}{9}$ and $\frac{M}{13}$ and in parts of 85 $\frac{M}{10}$ and 84 $\frac{P}{12}$ in the Yamethin, Thayetmyo and Magwe districts in continuation of his previous field season's work. The area surveyed, with the exception of sheet 84 $\frac{P}{12}$, includes the country between latitudes $19^{\circ} 45'$ and 20° and longitudes $96^{\circ} 15'$ and $95^{\circ} 30'$. Captain Walker recognised and mapped the following series:

- 4 Alluvium
- 3 Irrawadian.
- 2 Pegu series.
- 1 Archæan.

Archæan rocks occur east of Kyidaunggon in sheet 94 $\frac{A}{1}$ as a foothill spur from the Shan Plateau and consist of biotite gneiss traversed by a band of crystalline limestone striking N. N. W. They can probably be correlated with the gneisses with included limestones of the Sagaing Hills.

Pegu Rocks folded into small pitching anticlines and synclines, which can only be traced along the strike for short distances, are found in sheets 85 $\frac{M}{13}$, 85 $\frac{M}{9}$, 85 $\frac{M}{9}$, 84 $\frac{P}{12}$, 84 $\frac{M}{9}$ and 84 $\frac{M}{10}$ and form the back-bone of the Pegu Yoma in the centre of the area examined. In sheet 85 $\frac{M}{13}$ they occur as an alternating series of fawn-coloured sandstones and bluish thinly laminated shales; in sheet 85 $\frac{M}{9}$ as a series consisting of thin bands of calcareous gravel conglomerates interbedded in shales containing a small proportion of intercalated sandstones; in sheet 85 $\frac{M}{9}$ as typical Pegus, composed of alternates of shales and sandstones with calcareous bands, whilst in the main mass of the Yoma they are well exposed in the westward-flowing streams in sheets 84 $\frac{P}{12}$, 85 $\frac{M}{9}$ and 85 $\frac{M}{10}$ as a series of soft fawn-coloured sandstones and greyish blue shales which alternate in all proportions. Thin bands of calcareous sandstone are intercalated throughout the series and in these in isolated localities marine fossils were collected. A major syncline in this area was traced through successive sections for about 10 miles.

Irrawadian rocks occupy almost the whole of sheet 84 $\frac{A}{1}$ one the east of the Yoma and consist of a monotonous sequence of soft fawn-coloured sandstones, usually thinly bedded and well jointed. Extensive denudation of conglomeratic beds in the series, which can be well seen in the Thinwondaung and Peinyangtang Chaungs, has

given rise to gravel and pebble beds at Pyinmana. On the west side of the Pegu Yoma in the south-west of sheets 85 $\frac{M}{9}$ and 85 $\frac{M}{18}$ Irrawadian rocks occur in country having a very low contour and in which outcrops are extremely rare. In the north—sheet 85 $\frac{M}{9}$ —the Pegu-Irrawadian boundary is marked by a sharp change in the surface topography and the presence in some localities of a band of characteristic ferruginous conglomerate, about 18 inches thick and consisting of ferruginous concretions, gravel and, locally fossil wood, the whole being set in a ferruginous cement.

Alluvium covers the eastern portion of sheet 94 $\frac{A}{1}$ and occurs in small patches along the larger streams, whilst on the west of the Yoma is the large alluvial Taungdwingyi plain. Great difficulty was experienced in the whole area in separating alluvium from Irrawadian rocks and on the east of the Pegu Yoma in fixing the Pegu-Irrawadian boundary.

Mr. C. T. Barber in continuation of his previous season's work carried on the geological survey of the Meiktila, Myingyan and Pakokku districts, completing sheets 84 $\frac{P}{9}$, $\frac{O}{8}$, $\frac{O}{4}$, $\frac{O}{7}$, $\frac{O}{8}$ and those portions of sheets 84 $\frac{O}{12}$ and $\frac{O}{6}$ which lie west of the Thazi-Myingyan branch-line of the Burma Railways, and the Irrawaddy River respectively. In conformity with Mr. Clegg who was working to the east of Mr. Barber's area, and with whom the examination of the boundary between their two areas was carried out, the following rocks were mapped:—

Alluvium,
Irrawadian,
“ Passage Beds,”
Pegu series;

whilst further to the south-west the following surface deposits were also recognised:—

Plateau Red Earth.
Plateau Gravel.

The following are the characteristics of the various series recognised:—

Alluvium.—Consisting of buff to brown sandy clay, composed of the re-sorted sands and clays of the Irrawadian, Passage Beds and Upper Pegus and containing abundant

kankar and fresh-water gastropods, with a little derived fossil-wood.

Plateau Red Earth.—Consisting of brick red, sandy clays in which *kankar* and derived fossil-wood are locally abundant.

Plateau Gravel.—Consisting of large quartz pebbles and abundant fragments of fossil-wood in a loose, coarse, sandy matrix. No boundary was delineated between the Plateau Red Earth or the Plateau Gravel and the underlying formations but the general distribution of the two former was noted.

Irrawadian.—Consisting of bright, white, false-bedded sands and containing large blocks and trunks of fossil-wood and small quartz pebbles.

Passage Beds.—Consisting of alternating loose, white, false-bedded sands, locally characterised by small quartz pebbles and buff to grey sandy clays with occasional shales and impersistent compact sandstones. Lateral variation is very characteristic of these deposits.

Pegu Series.—Consisting of alternating compact, lustre-mottled sandstones and grey to blue shales and clays, in which false-bedding and lateral variation are conspicuous. These deposits are for the most part barren, but poorly preserved lamellibranchs and gastropods are recorded from several localities.

The major portion of sheet 84 $\frac{P}{9}$ is occupied by Upper Pegu, but in a broad syncline between Awzachan ($95^{\circ} 33'$; $20^{\circ} 57'$) and Thabutkon ($95^{\circ} 37'$; $20^{\circ} 57'$) villages, the soft false-bedded sands of the Passage Beds are represented, and continue northwards into sheet 84 $\frac{O}{12}$, where they form a belt some five miles in width, flanked on either side by rocks of the Pegu series and enclosing a small area of Irrawadian in the neighbourhood of Yonzingyi village ($95^{\circ} 34'$; $21^{\circ} 13'$). On the western flank of this area of Passage Beds, the Pegu rocks are composed for the most part of hard lustre-mottled sandstones which are sharply folded and faulted into a pronounced "diaper" structure, forming the Lebyo Hills. Similar sandstones alternating with blue to grey shales and gypsiferous clays continue westward into the southern portion of sheet 84 $\frac{O}{8}$, to the foot of Mount Popa, and a similar type of lithology can be traced north-

wards in the hills forming the anticlines of Taungalin ($95^{\circ} 26'$; $21^{\circ} 6'$), Kyatti ($95^{\circ} 22'$; $21^{\circ} 7'$), Myinthadaung ($95^{\circ} 19'$; $21^{\circ} 4'$), and Kabat ($95^{\circ} 3'$; $21^{\circ} 4'$). These anticlines pitch out in a northerly direction and the Upper Pegus give place to rocks of the Passage Beds which also "V" down the broad valleys between the anticlines themselves. Near Welaung ($95^{\circ} 7'$; $21^{\circ} 9'$) is a small area of Irrawadian, which continues northwards to Kyaukpon ($95^{\circ} 7'$; $21^{\circ} 11'$), where it is overlain by the extensive alluvium of the Sindewa Chaung.

West of the Kabat anticline the soft white sands of the Irrawadian again come in, and are here separated from the Upper Pegus and Passage Beds by a well defined red bed, which can be traced continuously in a north-north-westerly direction from Sainggaung village ($95^{\circ} 16'$; $21^{\circ} 4'$), for a distance of twelve miles and intermittently for another ten miles to Lettok ($95^{\circ} 8'$; $21^{\circ} 17'$), where it is finally lost beneath the Irrawaddy Alluvium. Irrawadian deposits occupy the greater portion of sheet $84\frac{0}{4}$, but rocks of the Pegu series again crop out in the Taungzin Hills in the extreme south-west. The boundary between the Irrawadian and the Pegus in this vicinity is obscured by the alluvium of the Saikgwa Chaung.

The whole of sheet $84\frac{0}{6}$ west of the Irrawaddy River is occupied by alluvium which extends into sheet $84\frac{0}{7}$, where it forms a belt some three miles in width on the right bank of the river.

Near Kuyuwa ($95^{\circ} 11'$; $21^{\circ} 25'$) Pegus rise abruptly from the alluvium and in the cliff-like sections which occur here, the rocks are well exposed, but once the cliffs have been ascended the solid geology is obscured by Plateau Red Earth and good exposures in the Pegus are rare till the Kyauktat Hills are reached. These hills form the eastern flank of a faulted anticline, the rocks forming the western flank of which are extremely ferruginous and are overlain by the bright white kaolin bed which here characterises the base of the Irrawadian. The whole of sheet $84\frac{0}{8}$, west of the Kyauktat anticline, is occupied by Irrawadian and alluvium, but exposures in the former are extremely rare on account of the surface deposits of Plateau Gravel and Plateau Red Earth, which here attain a considerable development.

Mr. S. Sethu Rama Rau, working in sheets $96\frac{J}{1}$, $\frac{J}{2}$, $\frac{J}{3}$, $\frac{J}{4}$, $\frac{J}{5}$, $\frac{J}{6}$, $\frac{J}{7}$, $\frac{J}{8}$, $\frac{J}{9}$, $\frac{J}{10}$, $\frac{J}{11}$, $\frac{J}{12}$ — $\frac{J}{14}\frac{K}{8}$ and $\frac{K}{9}$, completed the geological survey of the accessible Parts of the Mergui district. During the

course of his survey Mr. Sethu Rama Rau recognised the following series and lithological types:—

Moulmein limestones,
Mergui series,
Quartz Porphyry,
Gneiss ;

whilst in Mergui and the adjoining islands, grits, sandstones (with occasional siliceous infiltrations in their cracks and joints), and conglomerates were seen over a wide area, unconformably overlying argillites of the Mergui series.

Gneisses are exposed near Talobusa village and the series is made up of alternating bands gently folded into an undulating ridge. They include all types from acid to basic, the former consisting of quartz with a little biotite and the latter of hornblende, biotite and pyrites with a little quartz. Their relationships with the Mergui series were not seen but Mr. Rau believes them to be older than the latter and probably comparable with the early granites and gneisses of the Mogok frontier region. Intruded into these gneisses are coarse, irregular granites and pegmatites whilst quartz veins of a later date intersect the whole. The general strike of the intruded granite and quartz veins is 12° W. of N. to 12° E. of S.

Regular ridges of quartz porphyry which are well exposed in the islands north of Pase Mira on the Talebusa Chaung, and in the island near Sungei Mukang adjoin the biotite granites of the gneissic series; the quartz porphyries and these biotite granites are believed to be genetically related.

The Mergui series is made up of slates, quartzites, grits, conglomerates, argillites and kaolinised sandstones and generally strike in a direction 70° W. of N. to 70° E. of S. They are folded into a series of anticlines and synclines and in Lumpi island complete reversals of the strata were seen within a distance of one hundred feet. North of Kayang on the east of Lumpi island a band of slate includes pebbles of granite varying in diameter from one to nine inches.

The Moulmein limestones, which consist of coarse crystalline unfossiliferous limestone, form the Turret islands, a group whose precipitous limestone cliffs rise sheer from the sea, thus rendering the relationships of the limestones with the rocks of the surrounding islands indeterminable.

Sub-Assistant B. B. Gupta, working in the Yamethin and Magwe districts, completed sheets 93 $\frac{D}{8}$, 84 $\frac{P}{15}$ and portions of sheets 93 $\frac{D}{7}$ and 93 $\frac{D}{8}$.

Sheets 93 $\frac{D}{8}$ and 84 $\frac{P}{15}$ consist of Upper Tertiaries and rocks of the Irrawadian and Pegu series were mapped. Lithologically the Irrawadian rocks are composed of soft loose sandstones and gravels whilst Red Earth is seen as a surface deposit in areas where the topography is flat. Fossil wood in quantity was only seen in two localities, the first $2\frac{1}{4}$ mile S.S.W. of Inbingyi and the second about 1 mile S.S.E. of Chinbyitkyin. In the Yedoyo Chaung a rather different type of deposit was met with, consisting of unfossiliferous argillaceous grey sandstones with occasional shale partings, but was overlain to the east by the usual type of gritty Irrawadian sandstone. Vertebrate fossils were scarce but a tooth, provisionally referred to *Cervus latidens* (Lydeker), was obtained from the left Bank of Ingon Chaung, 2 miles N.W. of Indawgyi, and broken fossil bones from 1 mile S.W. of Indawgyi, and on the hill $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles S.W. of Myohla. A *Mastodon* tooth, said to have been collected in Ingon Chaung, was seen in the possession of the Thegyan *kpoongyi*. Pegu rocks underlie those of the Irrawadian to the west and consist of alternating beds of sandstones and shales varying greatly in texture. They are folded into a series of anticlines and synclines, Irrawadian rocks occurring as outliers in two of the synclines; the more westerly of the latter is continuous with one mapped by Mr. C. T. Barber in sheet 84 $\frac{P}{11}$ during the 1923-24 field season. The axes of these folds approximate to the strike of the rocks i.e., N.N.W.—S.S.E.

Red Earth occurs on Pegu rocks in flat areas in the north of sheet 84 $\frac{P}{15}$, and small fragments of fossil wood are common near the western boundary of the more easterly of the Irrawadian outliers mentioned.

The following fossils were identified from the localities cited :—

(1) Half a furlong S. of Sigon (in hard compact sandstone)—

Balanus sp., *Balanus* (*Chirona*) *sublævis*. J. de C. Sow.,
Ceratotrochus alcocki, Hoet., *Oxyrhina spallanzani*,
 Bon., *Pecten*? *kokenianus*, Noet., *Arca* sp., *Ostrea*
 sp.

- (2) $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles S.W. of Aingdo (in compact greyish brown sandstone)—
Carcharias (Prionodon) gangeticus, M. & H., *Alopias vulpes*, Gmelin.
- (3) Bwet Chaung about $1\frac{3}{4}$ miles S. of hill "1470", Kyaukgyidaung, just below the junction of two streams:—
Balanus sp., *Membranipora* sp., *Ostræa* sp.
- (4) $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles N.N.W. of Aingdo (in calcareous sandstone)—
Marginella sp., *Ringicula* cf. *hornesi*. Seg., *Ringicula* sp., *Cardita* sp., Fish teeth (indeterminable).
- (5) 2 miles S.S.E. of Aingdo (in calcareous sandstone)—
Ceratotrochus sp.
- (6) 1 mile 5 furlongs N. 10° W. of Pyazi:—
Cerithium sp.

In sheets 93 $\frac{D}{7}$ and 94 $\frac{D}{8}$ Mr. Gupta worked along the boundary between the Samon Sittang alluvium and the ancient rocks of the Shan Plateau and was able to recognise the following types: gneissose biotite granite, crystalline limestone (sometimes garnetiferous), slates and quartzite. Although sufficient work was not carried out to make the relations of all these lithological types clear, Mr. Gupta formed the opinion that the slates and quartzites belong to the Chaung-Magyi series, recognised in the Northern Shan States by LaTouche, and evidence of the intrusive nature of the gneissose granites into this series was seen on the Kyatpye-Kangyi footpath in sheet 93 $\frac{D}{8}$, where fragments of quartzite and slate had been caught up in the granite. Besides quartz and granite veins, quartz porphyries were also noted in the Chaung-Magyi but only the former carried the various ores of lead, copper, iron, graphite, etc., noted during the course of the survey.

The Central Provinces party comprised Dr. L. L. Fermor (in charge), Messrs. H. Crookshank and W. D. West, and Sub-Assistant D. S. Bhattacharji. Dr. Fermor continued his
Central Provinces Party. survey of the Sausar *tahsil*, Chhindwara district, and the adjoining portions of the Nagpur district. For a while Mr. Crookshank accompanied Dr. Fermor and he was then allotted work on the Pandhurna sheet to the west of the

Sausar sheet. On completion of this he joined Dr. Fox in northern Chhindwara, where he was engaged in work on the Gondwanas, as well as in adjoining parts of the Narsinghpur district. Mr. West was allotted the Deolapar sheet in the Nagpur district; his work there was interrupted by a visit to Kathiawar, and was terminated early in order to enable him to commence work in the Himalayas with Dr. Pilgrim. Sub-Assistant Bhattacharji continued his previous work in the Nagpur district.

During this season Dr. Fermor completed the examination of a small tract left unfinished in the Sapghota Reserved Forest, Nagpur district, and thereby completed the Sausar Chhindwara and Nagpur districts. sheet (55 $\frac{K}{14}$). The Sapghota forest is occupied

almost entirely by the continuation of the Mogra synclinerium mentioned in the previous review, and with the Mogra area exceeds in intricacy of folding and variety of rocks any ground yet investigated in the Central Provinces. The succession of rocks in the Sapghota forest comprises the complete series of stratified Archæan rocks of the Sausar *tahsil* referred to in the previous General Report from calc-granulites at the base to hornblende-schists at the top, with the exception of the gonditic horizon, which is represented only doubtfully by a thin band of garnet-quartzite. The dolomitic stage is represented both by the normal serpentinous types, and by the scapolitic Mogra suite referred to last year. In addition there is a thin stratum of felspathic quartzite sometimes micaceous, found at an horizon intermediate between those of the dolomitic and calcitic marbles, and overlying the garnet-quartzite referred to above. Finally in the N.E. corner of the forest there is a completely new type, namely a garnet-anthophyllite-schist, with large spongy pink garnets up to two inches in diameter, and prisms of anthophyllite up to one inch in length. In places the garnets are absent. This rock occurs in considerable masses, but the folding is so complicated, accompanied doubtless by much overthrusting, that it is impossible to be quite certain of its exact stratigraphic position; whether, for instance, the anthophyllite schist is a special metamorphic phase of one of the rocks previously studied, or whether it represents an horizon not hitherto encountered. After considering all the available data Dr. Fermor is of the opinion that this rock represents an additional horizon immediately above the hornblende-schists, a view which was confirmed in Mr. Bhattacharji's ground near Chorbaoli on the Ramtek sheet, where a small

outcrop of the same garnet-anthophyllite-schist was found in well folded, but less intricate ground, and again probably overlying hornblende-schist. In the previous season, at a point near Tekari about 2 miles to the north of the Sapgota anthophyllite-schist, and in much less intensely folded ground, a band of magnetite-quartz-rock, also probably overlying hornblende-schist, had been found. No evidence has been found, however, to show the relationship to each other of the anthophyllite-schist and the magnetite-quartz-rock, and these two have been grouped provisionally together until further evidence is forthcoming.

In addition to the anthophyllite-schist the intensely folded north-east corner of the Sapgota forest shows other fresh types; these, instead of representing additional horizons in the stratified sequence, are probably special metamorphic phases of previously studied types. Particularly distinctive is a mono-mineralic green schist composed, according to Dr. Fermor, of an amphibole with the pleochroism and extinction angles of pargasite, but optically negative. It is not yet clear whether this schist is a derivative of the diopsidites, and thus belongs stratigraphically to the dolomitic stage. In addition there are tremolite-schists, and actinolite-schists, both belonging to the dolomite stage, and also normal hornblende-schists. There are also many varieties of pyroxene rocks representing both the dolomitic and hornblende-schist stages; one interesting type being a diopsidite rich in clinocllore and spinel. Large garnets have been formed not only in the anthophyllite-schists, but also in intensely compressed biotite-gneisses rolled out into schists. Sillimanite has also been formed as a shear mineral. As the result of a change, presumably of somewhat later date, but not before folding movements ceased, the garnet-anthophyllite-schists have in one place been converted into spotted chlorite-schists, the spots representing the former garnets. As will be judged from the foregoing catalogue of types the intensity of stress in this corner of the forest has been very great.

Dr. Fermor proposes to call the whole succession the Sausar series and to allot to the various stages the names shown in the accompanying table. All the stages named are found on the sheet mapped, with the exception of the Ramtek quartzites, which, judging from Mr. Bhattacharji's mapping, must overlie the anthophyllite-schists (Sapgota stage). As will be recalled from previous reviews the various members of the Sausar series as thus defined are usually

separated one from another by acid biotite-gneisses, which have been treated as ortho-gneisses representing large-scale intrusions that have separated one from another the various members of the stratified sequence. Mr. West, as a result of his last season's work has suggested, however, that certain of these gneisses, in particular the sillimanite garnet-gneisses or schists and the fine-grained biotite-gneisses, may really be para-gneisses and schists.

Tabular Statement of the Sausar series.

Name of stage.	Type localities.	Chief rock types.
Ramtek (N) ¹ . . .	Ramtek Hills . . .	Sericitic quartzites.
Sapghota (N) . . .	Sapghota Reserved Forest. (N) Tekari . . .	Garnet anthophyllite-schists : chlorite-schists. Magnetite-quartz-rock.
Sitapar (C) ¹ . . .	Sitapar, Sapghota Reserved Forest,	Hornblende-schists, ² garnet-amphibolites, pyroxenites.
Bichua (C) . . .	Bichua (C), Bichua (N), Khapa Padri Reserved Forest (C). Mogra (C—for Mogra type).	White dolomitic marbles, cipolinos, spinel-, chondrodite- and serpentine-marbles, diopsidites, diopside-quartzites, tremolite-actinolite-schists. Scapolite-granulites, scapolite-diopside-marbles.
Chorbaoli (N) . . .	Chorbaoli . . . Sapghota Reserved Forest.	Felspathic muscovite-quartz-schists. Microcline-quartzites.
Mansar (N) or Gondite stage.	Mansar, Ramdongri (N), Waghora (C).	Gondite series, manganese-ore bodies ; perhaps certain garnet-quartzites.
Lohangi (C) . . .	Lohangi, Ghotni (C), Maharkund (N). Devi (C), Ghogara (N), Junawani (N).	Pink calcitic marbles, calciphyres. Black manganiferous marbles, piedmontite-marbles, and some manganese-ores.
Utekata (C) . . .	Utekata, Ghoti (C), Pareghat Reserved Forest (C). Jirola (C—for Jirola type).	Calc-granulite. Hornblende-biotite-granulites.

¹ The letters C and N indicate the Ohhindwara and Nagpur districts respectively.

² In addition there are probably hornblende-schists, etc., representing intrusives, probably of the same age.

If the garnet-sillimanite-gneisses prove to be para-gneisses then three additional stages will be needed in the section of the Sausar series between the Bichua stage (dolomitic marbles) and the Lohangi stage (calcitic marbles).

In the Sausar series as thus defined perhaps the most important horizon is that of the Gondite series and manganese-ore deposits (the Gondite or Mansar stage). The rocks comprised by the Gondite series are of a very unusual type and it seems unlikely, though it is of course not impossible, that there should be two such horizons in the Indian Archæan sequence. For this reason there are prospects of correlating by its aid the Archæan sequences of several parts of India. The late Mr. Burton's Sonawani series of the Balaghat district is evidently equivalent to a portion of the Sausar series. The Chilpi Ghat series, which because of the basal conglomerates of Chilpi Ghat itself Mr. Burton regarded as separated from his Sonawani series by an unconformity, may, however, prove equivalent to another portion of the Sausar series. The difficulty of correlating the Chilpi Ghat series with the Sausar series on the basis of the manganese-ore horizon is due to the absence of marbles from the former and to the presence of the great thickness of phyllites overlying the manganese-ore horizon, and of the conglomerates underlying the manganese-ore horizon; the phyllites are absent from the Sausar series as at present limited. Should subsequent work support Mr. West's suggestion, however, that the garnet-sillimanite-gneisses and schists are para-gneisses, that is to say metamorphosed argillaceous sediments, one of the difficulties will have disappeared, for it will be possible for them to represent the Chilpi phyllites in a more intensely metamorphosed form.

Gonditic rocks have been found in the Gangpur State of Orissa and sporadic occurrences are known in Central India, Bombay and possibly Rajputana (Banswara). The white marbles of Rajputana are so similar lithologically to those of the Bichua stage of the Sausar series that another line of correlation may lie here. It seems possible also that we may be able to correlate the rocks of the Eastern Ghats in the Madras Presidency with those of the Central Provinces, if Dr. Fernor is sound in his suggestion that the koduritic rocks of the Ganjam and Vizagapatam districts may be hybridised gonditic occurrences.

As is noticed on page 92 certain of the rocks of Sakrasanhalli in the Kolar district of Mysore bear a close resemblance, some to

members of the gondite series and others to the black mangani-ferous marbles of the Central Provinces (Lohangi stage). Mr. Jayaram of the Mysore Geological Department considers that the rocks of the Sakrasanhalli area represent an older section of the Dharwar series than has hitherto been recognised.

By using the Gondite series as a datum line, with the marbles as confirmatory evidence, it may prove ultimately possible to link up with the Central Provinces certain Archæan tracts of Rajputana, Singhbhum and Orissa, the Eastern Ghats of Madras, and Mysore.

Before joining Dr. Fox in northern Chhindwara Mr. Crookshank spent about a month in the vicinity of Pipla and Mohgaon on the Chhindwara district. Pandhurna sheet (55 $\frac{K}{10}$) in order to complete the boundary between the alluvium and the Deccan Trap and to trace to the west various faults and dykes seen in the Sausar tract to the east. A marked east-to-west fault with a downthrow of some 60 feet to the south was traced through the traps at Pindrai and Sawajpani, and three basaltic dykes were mapped. The flows themselves are of the normal type, mainly basalts with some dolerites. In the vesicular surface of one of them Mr. Crookshank found abundance of the zeolite ptilolite. The surface relief round Pipla is marked and there are distinct textural differences between certain of the flows, as well as two marked intertrappean horizons. In one of the latter abundant remains of plant fossils were discovered, as well as shelly fragments. The plant fossils include two coniferous fructifications, which have been passed for purposes of study to Prof. Sahni of Lucknow, who considers them to be of some importance.

The flows of Pipla compared with those of Linga near Chhindwara appear to be identical. It was found that the basal flow of Pipla was markedly porphyritic like the basal flow of Linga, that the second flow appeared to be identical in each area, being doleritic with a flaggy section, and that the third flow of each area is markedly rich in chlorophæite, though with this difference that the Pipla flow is largely doleritic whereas the Linga flow is basaltic. Two other pairs of flows seem to be sufficiently similar to be correlatable. If the parallelism between these two sets of flows can be trusted, it affords an illustration of the fluidity of the Deccan Trap lavas. Pipla is 25 miles S.S.W. of Linga, so that the same flows must have spread continuously over a distance of more than 25 miles.

Mr. W. D. West commenced work this season on the Deolapar sheet (55⁹/₈), which is two sheets to the east of the Sausar sheet mapped by Dr. Fermor and immediately north of the Ramtek sheet mapped by Sub-Assistant Nagpur district. Bhattacharji. In the ground mapped cappings of Deccan Trap were absent, but amongst the Archæans, on which the work was much hampered by widespread alluvium, Mr. West found most of the main stages of the Sausar series as developed in the Sausar tract. The rocks are arranged in parallel belts striking across country to the S. E., that is with a similar strike to that of Sausar; the structure, however, is much simpler than in Sausar. First there is a synclinorium of dolomitic marbles and gneisses in the Junawani Reserved Forest: this is followed to the north-east by an anticlinorium of calc-granulites and calcitic marbles, between Piparia and Jhanjharia; this again by a synclinorium of dolomitic rocks (of Mogra facies) west of Dongartal, overturned towards the north; and this by some simple anticlinal and synclinal folds of calc-granulite and calcitic marble, between Dongartal and Kamti. All these folds are continued to the south-east where they mostly disappear beneath alluvium. Mr. West's work confirms Dr. Fermor's provisional order of superposition which places the calc-granulites at the base, and also confirms the inversion of the beds in the belt of country to the south as mapped by Messrs. Cotter, Clegg, and Bhatta-charji.¹ The rock sequence in Mr. West's ground is as follows:—

Dolomitic marbles and associated rocks.

Spotted mica-schists.

Muscovite-quartzites.

Para-schists and gneisses (including composite gneisses).

Calcitic marbles.

Calc-granulites.

In addition there may be granite and hornblende-schist at all horizons.

The spotted biotite-schists are the rocks termed schistose sillimanite-biotite-gneisses by Dr. Fermor, whilst the para-schists and para-gneisses comprise Dr. Fermor's fine-grained biotite-gneisses and associated schists. Mr. West's suggestion that the rocks of these two horizons may be metamorphosed sediments is an important one which, if verified, will necessitate a re-adjustment in views provisionally held hitherto.

¹ Rec. G. S. I., vol. LIV, p. 47.

The main reasons for the view that these rocks are para-gneisses and schists are the facts that they occupy a definite stratigraphical position and that if they were ortho-gneisses and schists they should show cross-cutting relations to the definitely accepted members of the stratified sequence, which they do not. Mr. West explains the supposed marginal contact effects on the dolomites as representing a change in the composition of the original sediments where grading into a sediment of another type.

Concerning the calc-granulites Mr. West accepts the view that they are the product of the *lit-par-lit* intrusion of an acid magma into calcareous sediments: he suggests that they were not formed from a limestone as relatively pure as the overlying pink marble, but from a less pure limestone possessing a laminated or bedded structure which facilitated the introduction of the thin sheets of the acid magma that produced the hybrid. Concerning the nature of this magma there is room for a difference of opinion, as it has interacted so intimately with the limestone that its original nature can nowhere be seen within the calc-granulite. Also no feeders are seen. Dr. Fermor had postulated the fine-grained gneiss magma of group 1 as the intrusive, but if Mr. West proves correct in his views that this gneiss is a para-gneiss, then another source must be sought. If the fine-grained gneisses be excluded *in toto*, there is no competent igneous rock exposed. There is an abundance of leucocratic granite but its date of intrusion is subsequent to the folding of the banded calc-granulites. Dr. Fermor considers, however, that he has good evidence that a certain fine-grained gneiss containing grains of iron-ore (ilmenite in part) has been concerned in the formation of the calc-granulites. A possible solution to this divergence of views is that amongst the fine-grained gneisses are both ortho-gneisses and para-gneisses.

A notable feature amongst the rocks of the dolomitic suite is the mineral variety which is attributed to reactions between the dolomite itself and presumed original impurities. In particular the appearance at different points of forsterite, tremolite, and diopside is accounted for on the basis of the mass quantity of silica available. One interesting type discovered is a tremolite schist containing colourless garnet and yellow vesuvianite.

Another interesting point which Mr. West has worked out is the crystalloblastic order of the minerals. In ordinary igneous rocks the order of crystallisation of the minerals is deduced by noting

the relative idiomorphism of one mineral to another, and is dependent on the fact that the minerals have crystallised with falling temperature. In metamorphic rocks, however, the reactions by which the minerals are formed take place under the influence of rising temperature, so that in effect there is simultaneous crystallisation, giving a set of minerals representing the equilibrium under the highest temperature that prevailed. The shape of the crystals and their relations one to another will depend partly on such factors as crystallising force and partly on the particular reactions that take place. Instead of the "order of crystallisation" that pertains to igneous rocks we have the "crystalloblastic order" of Becke. In the area of high metamorphism we are considering, crystallisation must always have been complete, and it has, therefore, been possible by the study of a sufficiently large number of slides, to work out the crystalloblastic order of most of the minerals in these rocks. Leaving out certain minerals, the position of which is undetermined, the following order was arrived at:—

1. Spene, sillimanite, tourmaline.
2. Epidote.
3. Muscovite, amphibole.
4. Biotite, pyroxene.
5. Scapolite.
6. Plagioclase felspar.
7. Quartz.
8. Potash felspar.

The area surveyed by Sub-Assistant D. Bhattacharji occupies the northern portion of standard sheets Nos. 55 $\frac{0}{7}$ and 55 $\frac{0}{8}$, between latitudes 21° 25' and 21° 30', beginning from the Nagpur district. eastern margin of the Ramtek *tahsil* down to the Pench river on the west. The formations seen were alluvium and the Archæans, the latter comprising most of the members of the Sausar series as well as various gneisses and intrusive granites and pegmatites. The latter are divisible into two groups—older and younger—primarily by the amount of movement and metamorphism they have undergone and secondly upon mineralogical grounds. The rocks of the dolomitic suite have been found to separate the slabby quartzite and muscovite-quartz-schist noted previously. The former, seen typically in the Ramtek hills, is regarded as a typical sediment, whilst the latter, concerning the origin of which there may be some doubt, is well seen

in the Junawani Reserved Forest near Chorbaoli. Dr. Fermor considers Mr. Bhattacharji's evidence sufficiently good to justify the outcrops in these two areas being taken as typical of two different stages and has added them to his Sausar series as the Ramtek and Chorbaoli stages in the table given on page 78. The muscovite-quartz-schist of the Chorbaoli stage is described as a good mappable horizon and often contains pebbles distorted by crush, the presence of the latter being an additional criterion for its identification.

As the evidence obtained by Mr. West confirmed the order of superposition of the strata as worked out in the Sausar tract, the rocks of the Parseoni and Ramtek area must now be looked upon as a reversed sequence. Mr. Bhattacharji constructed an ingenious model with paper and plasticine representing the folds over a considerable strength of country in order to see how this inversion could be possible. It was found that with slight adjustments of the model it was possible to make pitching synclinal folds simulate anticlines and *vice versa*.

The coalfields party under the charge of Dr. C. S. Fox included Messrs. E. R. Gee and A. K. Banerji, and for a short time Mr. H. Crookshank. The field season was spent in a re-examination of some of the Central Provinces coal areas.

Dr. Fox and Mr. Gee are in agreement that the previous work in the Wardha Valley carried out by Mr. T. H. Hughes had fully elucidated both the structure and succession of the Gondwana strata in that region. The exploration which has taken place since Mr. Hughes mapped the Wardha Valley coalfields has allowed a little more precision to be obtained in regard to minor boundaries and faults in that area. Mr. Gee is of the opinion that the sandstones seen north of Ellichpur in the Amraoti district are newer than the Barakar beds—a view originally held by Mr. W. T. Blanford and also by Mr. J. G. Medlicott.

Dr. Fox and Mr. Gee have proved the existence of coal-bearing strata close to, and often exposed at, the surface to the north of the tract of Barakar beds shown on the older geological maps of the southern Satpura coalfields. This occurrence is due to the step-faulting which is present, and which has a down-throw generally to the south in beds which steadily dip northward.

Time did not permit of the separation of the coal-bearing formations from the younger strata in this region, throughout the area visited, a separation which the lack of exposures at critical points and the difficult nature of the country would have rendered laborious. Enough is now known, however, of the coalfields along the southern margin of the Satpura-Gondwana basin to indicate that the available coal resources of this tract are greater than previous estimations.

Dr. Fox's traverses have led him to believe that coal-bearing rocks will be found at no great depths in the valleys of the Denwa, Sonbadra and Tawa rivers to the southwest and southeast, respectively, of the Pachmarhi hills. He is in particular impressed with the possibility of a hidden coalfield in the low ground immediately north of Hasdiwari and south of Delakhari. The strata in this area are unfortunately somewhat interrupted by the great masses of intrusive dolerite of Deccan Trap age which are there very conspicuous.

The hard sandstones forming the anticline seen a mile south of Tindi near Khairi, 10 miles west of Mohpani, are thought possibly to be associated with the coal measures of the south Narbada Valley; if so the area may be worthy of prospecting. Dr. Fox is of the opinion that the numerous bore-holes which have been put down near Gotitoria have proved little, and that the location of some of the bore-hole sites in this area were not as wisely chosen as they might have been. He is unable to agree with the view that the coal seams which were found further to west near Bagra and again near Lokartalai are in strata of the Jabalpur beds. His opinion is the same as that originally held by Mr. W. T. Blanford and supported by Mr. J. G. Medlicott: it was subsequently discarded by Mr. H. B. Blanford. This view is that these coal seams are in strata of Damuda age and possibly the equivalent of the Barakar stage. Although these coal-seams belong most probably to the same series as those of Mohpani, they are much thinner; the coal, moreover, is of poorer quality and may prove incapable of profitable exploitation.

The conclusions that the upper Gondwana rocks of this region are much thinner in total amount and form a repeated series of different varieties of sediments of nearly the same age, have been supported by the traverses made by Messrs. H. Crookshank and A. K. Banerji and also by the discovery of old field maps by Dr. V. Ball. These conclusions agree with the original opinions expressed by Mr. J. G. Medlicott previous to the drastic revision instituted by his brother.

The present view is that the topmost sandstones of Tamia and the southern part of the Pachmarhi hills are the same as those capping the highest hills south of Mohpani which have been called Jabalpur beds. The banked conglomerates and limestones of the Bagra beds are a shore facies of the sandstones and red and variegated clays of the so-called Denwa stage and that these again are equivalents of the Motur Stage. There is a great variation in the proportion of sandstones to red clays in the Denwa-Motur group as these beds are traced southwards and south-westwards from the Anjan gorge south of Fatehpur. Sometimes the clays are more abundant, as around Jhispa and in the Dudhi Valley between Khapa and Baman; in other cases the clays are very subordinate, as in the northern part of the Pachmarhi hills south of Singanama.

Below these beds there are further clays and sandstones, such as those of north Delakhari; these are probably the equivalents of the Alimod beds and possibly the representatives of the Kamthi beds of Nagpur and the Panchets of the Damuda valley.

Under these strata occur the Bijori beds, which are identifiable with the Raniganj stage of the Bengal coalfields. There is, then, some obscurity in the succession owing to lack of exposures, and to the overlap of the Motur facies of the Denwa. The next beds seen are the coal measures of the Pench valley, etc.; these lie on the Talchirs.

The field work shows that there must be a considerable stratigraphical break between the Damuda and the Mahadeva series in the Satpura basin, particularly along the margins of the basin both to the north and south. The younger beds have been more completely removed by denudation along the south of the basin, possibly because these beds were thinner in the south, and thus the old rocks are better exposed.

The coal seams appear to be best developed in the middle strip, from north to south, about 15 miles wide from Mohpani to Jamai. To the east as well as to the west the seams become thinner and appear to deteriorate in quality as a fuel.

The general structure from north to south is that of a basin but the beds have been subjected to some compression as there are three or four anticlinal axes trending 75° E. of N.— 75° W. of S. There are several faults parallel to the same direction; most of these throw down to the south but there are strong main faults

in the north and in the south which appear to throw the beds down to the north.

There is also a general low dip to the east and to the west from a N. and S. line trending through the Pachmarhi hills. The whole of the Gondwana strata have a tilt to the north and this is the most conspicuous feature, Talchir beds being found at an altitude of 2,500 feet along the southern margin and similar beds at 1,200 feet along the northern margin of the basin.

Mr. A. K. Banerji, on his return from deputation in London, was directed to join the Coalfields party in February and was given the Mohpani coalfield to re-survey. This re-survey has demonstrated the excellent nature of the original investigation carried out by Mr. H. B. Medlicott in 1869-70. The area is complicated in structure and large-scale maps would be necessary to elucidate all the minor details of folding and faulting. From a commercial point of view it is doubtful whether the preparation of such maps would be justifiable in view of the disturbance to which the beds have been subjected. No fresh discoveries of workable coal have been made and the question of the northward extension of the coal-bearing series beneath the Narbada alluvium has yet to be answered. Mr. Banerji is inclined to believe that, since the general structure is that of an anticlinal flexure, such a hidden extension to the north is probable but that it is very unlikely to extend to any distance.

The Shahpur coalfield comprising the area of Barakar rocks in the northwestern part of the Betul district of the Central Provinces, was re-investigated by Mr. Gee. Up to the present efforts to exploit the area have met with very limited success, but it would be unfair to judge from past results since no attempts to prove the succession by boring have been carried out. Efforts appear to have been concentrated—in most cases in ignorance of the geological structure of the seams—on the sinking of a number of diggings within a very short distance of a coal outcrop observed in the bank of a neighbouring stream-course. Such primitive attempts, regardless of the damage done to the seams by flooding during the rains, have not unexpectedly met with little success; many of them were inaugurated during the boom season of 1919-20, and the workings have since been abandoned.

A previous survey of the field was carried out by Mr. Medlicott during the field-season of the year 1875 and, during the present

inspection, no great differences as regards the extent of the various divisions of the Lower Gondwana rocks of the area were encountered. It was from the point of view of the structural details within the field that the conclusions arrived at were at variance with those of Mr. Medlicott.

The strata on the whole dip to the north or north-east at a low to moderate angle, but their present extent at the surface is governed mainly by the numerous faults which traverse the area. Two systems of faulting occur; an east-to-west series together with a number of cross-faults cutting these obliquely from north-west to south-east. The throw of these faults appears to vary rapidly so that they affect considerably the horizon of the outcropping strata along the line of faulting.

A very close connection appears to exist between these vertical displacements and the basalt and dolerite intrusions which intersect the area, the main dykes following very closely the lines of faulting. The occurrence of tracts of ferruginous, silicified, and quartz-veined sandstones in similar intimate association with the intrusives and with the faulting of the field, was noted.

The succession of the Gondwanas represented in and around the Shahpur coalfield include types ranging up to the Motur horizon. The Talchirs rest against the Archæans of the highlands to the south. In some instances they pass conformably up into the Barakar division, but in many cases the two series are separated by faulting. The Barakar strata include a lower horizon of transitional beds in which thin coal-seams occur; these are followed by mass-grey felspathic sandstones and grits, in the upper part of which several coal-beds are included. The Barakar sandstones pass upwards into a series of moderately soft greenish sandstones which give place above to true Motur types, in which red and green clays containing calcareous nodules are intercalated. These strata are all well exposed in the Tawa River and its tributaries.

No boring records being available the only source of information regarding the coal-seams of the field is the limited surface outcrops which occur. In the eastern, Dulahra, portion of the coalfield five seams ranging up to $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet in thickness are observed in the Tawa River and in the diggings to the north. The thicker seams include bands of shaly coal and are of very poor quality; the lower seams of $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet and $2\frac{1}{4}$ feet in thickness show an improvement, containing only about 20 per cent. ash. Two thin seams were met with

in the lower Barakars near the Machna tributary a short distance from Shahpur; whilst in the same river-section two other coal-seams about 3 feet in thickness, and apparently of better quality, were seen in the upper Barakars. Again, at Gurgunda in the western part of the field a 6-foot seam, including a band of shaly coal had been worked for a short period. The outcrops of the coal are therefore not very promising, though it is possible that investigations by boring might bring to light other workable seams.

The Gajandoh coalfield in the Chhindwara district, about 2 miles north-north-east of the town of Umreth, was inspected by Mr. E. R. Gee. Here the Barakars crop out over an area of about $\frac{1}{10}$ th square mile. To the south the Archæan granites and gneisses are faulted down against the coal-bearing series; while to the north-east and west a thin strip of red Motur clays followed by basalt lava-flows rests on these lower Gondwana beds. The Barakars are represented by massive sandstones with grey shales. One coal-seam outcrops in the Thaonri, just north of the boundary fault; this had been dug from a short cutting which is now flooded, and only one foot of the seam was visible. The seam dips at a fairly steep angle to the north, but there is evidence of a decrease of the inclination as we go northwards away from the fault.

The sandstones quarried at Bairam near Ellichpur were examined by Mr. Gee who describes them as medium-textured and gritty grey felspathic types some of which resemble in lithology many of the typical Barakar sandstones associated with the coal-seams. They however contain no carbonaceous bands, though purple argillaceous intercalations occur in the upper part of the succession. In these higher horizons they pass into conglomerates containing red jasper pebbles. Resting apparently conformably on this arenaceous series are thicker purple clays, followed by a purple-grey limestone of infra-trappean horizon. It is therefore strongly suggested that the sandstones belong to the higher Gondwana horizons, probably corresponding to the Kamthis of other areas.

The tract of Gondwana strata known as the Patakhera coalfield in the south-eastern portion of the Betul district, forms a continuation to the east of the Shahpur coalfield, and was inspected by Mr. Gee. The Talchir beds crop out to the south of the Lodardeo-

Gajandoh coalfield,
Chhindwara district;
Central Provinces.

Ellichpur;
Central Provinces.

Rawandeo ridge as far east as the village of Bagdona. To the south they rest on the gneisses of the Ranipur-Gatakhera tract. They include the same succession as in the Shahpur field, the conglomerates of the lower part of the series being well-exposed in the Phopas and neighbouring stream-courses and including boulders which appear to be definitely striated.

To the east these Talchir beds pass, usually quite gradually, up into the Barakar beds which outcrop in the Ranipur Forest. A few thin coal-seams occur just to the east of Bagdona, and these appear to come in in the lower Barakar horizons. But in the Pathakhhera Nala several seams of workable thickness crop out, including one seam 10 feet in thickness; the dip, however, in this stream is as steep as 50°.

To the north of the Barakar beds, which appear to be partially repeated by an east-to-west fault, softer greenish types crop out with no included carbonaceous bands. A coal-seam again crops out in the Tawa River to the north of the tract, to the south of Jungikhapa. Just south of this coal-outcrop a trap dyke can be traced discontinuously right across the tract following an east-to-west direction, and marks the line of a second fault, causing the incoming of the Barakar beds to the north, evidenced by the coal-seam of the Tawa River.

The eastern boundary of the field also appears to be a faulted one, the fault following the Tawa as it flows northwards past Bichhwa. This fault brings the Pathakhhera Barakars against the Talchirs to the east.

In the Lodardeo-Kilandeo area the post-Barakar sandstones and intercalated clays were found by Mr. Gee to be largely represented. To

Lodardeo-Kilandeo area; Central Provinces. the east of the Dulahra coalfield, and again in the Tawa River to the north-west of the coal outcrop south of Jungikhapa, a series of greenish sandstones with very thin carbonaceous intercalations occur. Above these beds rest the typical Moturs with bands of red and green clays. These are well-exposed to the north of the Tawa River around Ghogri, and in the Dagdaga Nala, and cover a part of the area previously mapped by Jones as Barakar. Above these clay horizons thick sandstones are well-exposed in the hillslopes up to Kilandeo Peak. They vary in type, a yellow siliceous fine-grained variety being prominent.

In the foot-hills of the Bamhanwara-Khapa area the uppermost Talchir sandstones are prominent. Evidence of small faults causing

their repetition to the north were observed by Mr. Gee in the stream-courses of these hills. In the north-western part of the area these upper Talchir beds appear to be faulted against the post-Barakar strata by a displacement down-throwing to the north. In the streams to the north-west the Barakar beds including several thin coalseams crop out above the Talchir series. Faulting, usually in the vicinity of trap-dykes, has affected the outcrops of these beds in various ways.

In November 1924, Dr. Fermor, while visiting the North Arcot and Salem districts in the Madras Presidency in order to assist Mr. Vinayak Rao with certain difficulties, took the opportunity of examining, under the guidance of Mr. T. Pryor, mining adviser to Messrs. John Taylor & Sons, the conglomerate belt that stretches from Kolar into North Arcot, and concerning the nature of which there does not yet appear to be complete agreement amongst geologists. Dr. Fermor found that in the Bisanattam Nala this belt provides good evidence of autoclastic phenomena. An acid tongue, regarded by the Mysore geologists as belonging to the Champion gneiss, projects into hornblende-schists of Dharwar age, xenoliths of which are found in the gneiss, proving thereby the intrusive character of the gneiss. This gneiss has been crushed with the production of a pseudo-conglomerate consisting of 'pebbles' of gneissose granite, and sometimes of xenolithic hornblende-schist, in a more schistose gneiss matrix. In one place the gneiss has been crushed throughout to a fine-grained schistose gneiss with occasional "pebbles" of less crushed gneiss. In another place exposures are seen of granite veins injected *lit-par-lit* into hornblende-schist, the granite often swelling into lenticles in the manner so often seen with acid intrusive veins. Such an occurrence seems specially liable to conversion into an autoclastic conglomerate, and in another exposure this is seen to have happened; the lenticular swellings have become most deceptive "pebbles" and "boulders" with the thinner connecting portion of the granite squeezed out, leaving acid "pebbles" in a matrix of hornblende-schist, a result almost the reverse of that noticed above, in which the "conglomerate" showed acid and basic "pebbles" in an acid matrix. All stages in the formation of these conglomerates are to be found in the Bisanattam Nala, whose fine set of exposures support in no small

measure the view held by the Mysore Geological Department as to the autoclastic nature of the Kolar conglomerate belt.

Dr. Fermor and Mr. Vinayak Rao also visited Sakrasanhalli some 4 miles S. S. W. of Bisanattam station and in the Kolar district of Mysore State; at this locality there is an occurrence of black manganiferous marble with associated manganese-garnet rocks, which in the opinion of Mr. Jayaram of the Mysore Geological Department may, with certain other rocks, belong either to a lower division of the Dharwars than has hitherto been recognized in Mysore or to a still older series. Dr. Fermor observed a close resemblance between these rocks of Sakrasanhalli and members of the Sausar series in the Central Provinces: and should detailed stratigraphical work confirm Mr. Jayaram's suggestion concerning the position of the rocks of Sakrasanhalli, this will agree with the suggestion previously advanced by Dr. Fermor that, if the hornblende-schists of the two areas can be correlated, the majority of the Dharwars—now called the Sausar series of the Sausar *tuhsi* must be regarded as older than those hitherto described from Mysore.¹

Rao Bahadur M. Vinayak Rao continued his survey of North Arcot and Salem in Madras on standard sheets (1 inch=1 mile) Nos. 57 $\frac{1}{1}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{6}$ and $\frac{1}{10}$.

No representatives of the manganiferous marble observed in the neighbourhood of Sakrasanhalli were noticed to the south, but about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of the Samalpatti railway station on the South Indian Railway thin bands of limestone—some of them better described as of marble extend for a distance of about ten miles, and may be correlated with the manganiferous marble. These would thus form the oldest rocks of the Dharwars in this area. According to Mr. Vinayak Rao some of the limestones approach in composition the calc-granulites of the Chhindwara district, Central Provinces. Hornblende granites were found to be among the earliest intrusives in the Dharwars.

In the neighbourhood of Krishnagiri in the Salem district there occur bands of an even-grained pink granite which is intrusive in the older gneisses. They are probably of the same age as the Closepet granites of Mysore and the Bellary granites.

¹ *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, vol. LIII, p. 23.

The Javadi Hills east of Vaniyambadi in the North Arcot district probably formed part of the Mysore plateau. The Palar valley, which separates them, is thought to have been formed during the intrusion of the charnockites in this area. The charnockites are found as thin bands on the Mysore Plateau, and do not appear to extend north of the latitude of Bangalore.

The conglomerates in the Dharwar east of Bisanattam railway station are considered by Mr. Vinayak Rao to be autoclastic conglomerates.

Dr. A. M. Heron, in charge of the Rajputana Party, while on his way to inspect the work of Messrs. A. L. Coulson, E. J. Bradshaw and B. C. Gupta, in the Bundi State, took the opportunity of mapping, with the assistance of Sub-Assistant B. C. Gupta, the country adjoining the Great Boundary Fault of Rajputana (in standard sheets, Central India and Rajputana 203, 234 and 235).

The rest of the season was occupied by him in the geological survey of standard sheets, Central India and Rajputana Nos. 171, 204, 205, and 206. Portions of these, included within the States of Gwalior and Tonk (Nimbahera *pargana*) had previously been surveyed by Mr. H. C. Jones before the war, and are included in the following description.

A novel feature of this area is the manner in which the strike of the rocks, which, throughout Rajputana north of a line drawn from Udaipur City to Chitorgarh, is almost invariably N.E.-S.W., here swings through N.-S. to N.W.-S.E., almost as if the western lobe of the great Vindhyan plateau, on the extreme west of which is built the famed fortress of Chitor, had formed a block around which the older formations had been bent, the Great Boundary Fault itself being also concentric to this curvature.

The oldest rocks appear to be an assemblage of shales, slates and phyllites; these are lithologically similar to, and are continuous along the strike through the Bundi State with rocks which in southern Jaipur were tentatively attributed to the Gwalior system by Dr. Heron. (*Mem. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, vol. XLV, pt. 2, pp. 138-145.) Evidence is accumulating that these so-called Gwalior rocks pass gradually into the highly altered Aravalli types in the direction perpendicular to their strike, by increase of metamorphism as the centre of the ancient Aravalli range is approached.

Near the Great Boundary Fault they are shales, but, as they are followed to the west or north-west away from the fault and across the strike, they first assume a simple cleavage without mineral modification and then become successively phyllites with veins of intrusive quartz, chlorite and muscovite schists with staurolite and finally garnetiferous mica-schists with pegmatite veins in *lit-par-lit* injection—composite banded gneisses. It thus appears possible that the lower, argillaceous division of the so-called Gwaliors of southern Jaipur are, as Dr. Heron at first believed, unaltered Aravallis, which have escaped metamorphism owing to their remoteness from the core of the ancient range.

In the Jaipur area these beds are succeeded upwards conformably by a series of quartzites (the Ranthambhor quartzites) interbedded with the shales and dolerite sills, which have a considerable resemblance to the true Gwaliors of the type area. These also have their representatives in the present area, at Mandalgarh and Bari Sadri, in large synclines of ripple-marked, pebbly quartzites; they have been mapped by Hacket as Vindhya and Delhi, but they resemble neither and are conformable on the underlying shales and slates.

Large expanses of a medium-grained pink granite, the ferromagnesium component of which is secondary chlorite, and which is devoid of pegmatite veins, interrupt the slate areas. This is distinct from the post-Delhi and post-Aravalli (pre-Delhi) granites of northern Rajputana. Its exposed contacts with the slates are few, but, where seen, there is great mechanical disturbance of the slates without any metamorphism, and in no case was a trace of basal arkose or conglomerate seen. The balance of probability is, according to Dr. Heron, that the granite is intrusive in the slates. Both are traversed by dykes and, in the slates, by sills of olivine dolerite altered in places to epidiorite.

The granite itself has suffered pressure metamorphism towards the west and the Berach River bed affords an admirable demonstration of its gradual transition into a grey, slabby gneiss. Slates, granite and dolerite are but poorly exposed, and excavated material from wells which pierce the alluvial mantle has often to be relied on for their mapping.

Rising boldly above the plain are numerous steep ridges of massive white quartzites (sometimes quartz grits), seldom showing bedding, but seen under the microscope to have been a true sedi-

mentary sandstone composed of rounded quartz grains, with secondary quartz in optical continuity with that of the grains, filling the interspaces to form a mosaic. These quartzites are quite distinct from the Mandalgarh and Bari Sadri quartzites.

The abundant and highly resistant *débris* which they shed conceals most effectually their junctions with the slates around their bases. In one or two favourable sections, however, apparent complete discordance was observed by Dr. Heron, not however as if the quartzites lay with an erosion unconformity upon the slates, but as if they were inset at a high angle into the slates, an attitude which Mr. Middlemiss has noted in Idar.¹

The apparent dip of the slates is, however, merely a cleavage dip, almost invariably at high angles to the W. or N. W., and the true stratification, rarely visible, may be at any angle to the cleavage. Despite these deceptive appearances to the contrary, it is believed that the white quartzites are conformable members of the same sequence as the slates.

The manner in which such quartzites "make and break," ending abruptly and appearing again suddenly along the strike, is a puzzling commonplace in such regions. In few cases can it be explained by the concealment of missing portions under alluvium, by normal dip-faulting or by the quartzites being the roots of synclines or crests of anticlines closely compressed and steeply pitching. The phenomenon is believed by Dr. Heron to be due to disruption and actual moving apart of the quartzites in a plane perpendicular to the direction of tectonic pressure, the slates being forced between the separated sections. Wedge-faulting (*schuppenstruktur*) may also have contributed, by cutting out the quartzites in some places, and in others duplicating them.

Four miles west of Barundni shales lie with an indubitable erosion unconformity upon the granite, and N. and N. W. of Chitor quartzites and arkose grits have the same clear relationship to it, but it is quite uncertain that these rocks are of the same age as the Gwalior or Aravallis above described—there is a possibility that they are younger. The quartzites near Chitor rest, with a basal arkose and conglomerate, on granite to the east, and dip westwards under slates, the various beds of quartzite ending abruptly *en echelon* against slates, in a way which indicates wedge-faulting.

¹ *Mem. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, vol. XLIV, pt. 1, pp. 75, 109-111.

In the south of the area inky-purple grits and greywacke, "the Khardeola grits," rest with a somewhat obscure unconformity upon the slates, having at places along the supposed unconformity a thin, basic, devitrified vesicular lava, the "Khairmalia amygdaloid." As the Khardeola grits appear to be free from dolerite intrusions, Dr. Heron believes that the Khairmalia amygdaloid is the effusive representative of the dolerite hypabyssals.

The next formation is the buff, or more rarely grey, "Bhagwanpura limestone," which extends north and south throughout the area in a broad band, overlapping both the Khardeola grits and the underlying slates, quartzites and granite. It is full of chert and quartz, and the unconformity at its base is locally marked by bands of rounded pebbles of quartz, jasper, quartzite and more rarely granite, with much of the angular quartz débris produced by the disintegration of granite. Owing to the obscurity of the dip, the thickness of the limestone can only be guessed, but is of the order of a thousand feet. At its top it passes up into shales, which are however usually concealed by the Sawa grit.

Parallel to the Bhagwanpura limestone band to its east, the "Sawa grit" and the "Sawa shales" form a narrow discontinuous ridge. The grit, which is mainly composed of subangular chert and white quartz fragments, lies with a recognizable but not violent unconformity upon the Bhagwanpura limestone, with outliers upon the older series, and passes up conformably into the Sawa shales, which are white, siliceous and chert-like.

The relation of the Sawa shales to the "Binota shales," the next formation, is doubtful, since the southward extension of the Great Boundary Fault seems to pass more or less along their junction, and exposures are poor. For four miles along this line, the Sawa grit and shales are cut out by the fault, and the Bhagwanpura limestone is inverted over the Binota shales by the thrust, resting on them at a low angle.

The "Binota shales" are exposed in another north and south band parallel to the Bhagwanpura limestone and the Sawa beds, to the east of those, and are in their turn overlapped to the east by the Jiran sandstone and the Vindhya. They are a monotonous series of brownish shales, sometimes rather sandy and micaceous, with occasional thin ferruginous layers, and are disposed nearly horizontally in low rolling folds.

The "Jiran sandstone"—the "Delhi quartzite" of Hacket in his references to this particular area—is 100-200 feet in thickness, and in it three zones can be distinguished, the lowest pale grey mottled with deep purple, the middle one coloured grey and purple in about equal amounts, and the uppermost of a purple colour almost to the exclusion of grey. Near Bari the lowest beds are very coarse-grained and have been described by Hacket as conglomeratic. The sandstone is disposed in four anticlines and three synclines, with their axes running north and south; near Choti Sadri they unite to form a plateau in which dips are practically horizontal. In the present area the sandstone overlies the Binota shales with every appearance of conformity, but eight miles to the south, outside this area, a very clear unconformity between the two was seen by Dr. Heron, in a group of flat-topped hills near Wardhal, the horizontal sandstone capping them, with the shales dipping to the west at 5° in the undercliff.

In most of the Vindhyan area the Kaimur sandstone with its basal conglomerate marks the bottom of the Upper Vindhyan, and below this the lower Vindhyan may or may not occur, but where they do so, there is always a slight unconformity between them and the Kaimur. Here the lower Vindhyan proper are absent, but beneath the Kaimur sandstone (there is no conglomerate) more than 1000 feet of beds intervene between it and the base of the Vindhyan, in a perfectly conformable sequence, and these must be classed as Upper Vindhyan.

All these strata are folded in the same fashion—in narrow anticlines and synclines with north and south axes. The Kaimur sandstone forms a bold plateau, with oval outlying patches representing troughs of denuded synclines, on the westernmost of which stands the Fort of Chitor; the other stratigraphically lower formations, shales and limestone, occupy the level, featureless plain below.

At the base of the long Vindhyan succession is the Khori-Malan finely conglomeratic sandstone, 30-40 feet thick, lying on both the Binota shales and the Jiran sandstone, with occasional large rounded boulders. It is a curiously local formation, occurring practically only in the vicinity of Khori and Malan. Elsewhere the purplish Nimbahera shales, 150 feet thick, rest directly on the Jiran sandstone or the Binota shales; in the latter case it is hardly possible to separate them, for they are lithologically almost identical and both are poorly exposed.

The Nimbahera shales pass upwards into the Nimbahera limestone, through 30 feet of passage beds—reddish-purple limestones. The remainder of the limestone, 450 feet in thickness, is pale grey with partings of fawn colour, and is thick-bedded in layers 1 or 2 feet thick—a smooth, hard rock, almost a lithographic stone. It is extensively quarried, particularly round Nimbahera. Sawa and Khori, zones more thinly bedded than the normal being favoured, so as to yield slabs about 4 inches thick. Jointing is regular, the joint-planes running 20° W. of N. and 80° E. of N. approximately; slabs 2 or 3 yards square can be extracted. Where folding stresses have been exceptionally strongly felt, a vague cleavage has been initiated at an angle to the true bedding.

The Suket shales succeed the Nimbahera limestone conformably, and pass upwards without discordance into the Kaimur sandstone, the transition being well seen on the road leading to the Chitor Fort. They form the undercliffs to the Kaimur scarps, and a broad belt encircling their base, with two long narrow synclines extending some miles south from Chitor, folded into the Nimbahera limestone. Away from the scarps the Suket shales are considerably puckered, but close below the top of the scarp they lie regularly, owing to their being protected from crumpling by the rigidity of the competent sandstone above.

The Kaimur sandstone is a uniformly fine-grained rock, more a quartzite than a sandstone, pale grey in colour blotched with brownish-purple. Usually it is thick-bedded, while a roughly quadrangular jointing gives rise to great vertical monoliths on the face of the bold scarps which the Kaimur forms.

In the extreme south-east, around Neemuch, Deccan Trap, with patches of laterite upon it, overlies all the older formations and forms fertile plains of cotton-soil. Inliers of the Jiran sandstone project in places through it, and outliers of the trap extend for some miles north and west from the main expanse as characteristic flat-topped hills in which is exposed a thickness of about 50 feet of trap, all belonging to the one flow.

The Great Boundary Fault of Rajputana has now been followed throughout its entire visible length, from where it is interred below the Gangetic alluvium near Fatehpur Sikri in the north to where it disappears below Deccan Trap on the frontiers of Mewar and Partabgarh in the south. Its course through the Karauli and Jaipur States has been described by Dr. Heron (*Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, vol.

XLV, pt. 2, pp. 169-177); Messrs. Coulson and Bradshaw have this season traced the portion which lies within the Bundi State, and Dr. Heron the remainder lying in the Mewar territory.

The faulting appears seldom or never to consist of a "clean-cut thrust," but usually comprises several planes of movement, sometimes diverging widely, with large blocks of unfractured country between; in other places it is a band of shearing and crushing. As shewing an example of the latter the "Datunda quartzite" of Hacket may be cited. This extends as a ridge, varying greatly in height and in width, from south of Bundi City to beyond Mandalgarh, between the Vindhyan on the south-east and the Gwalior shales on the north-west. It appears to be merely a line of wedges of shattered lower Bhandar sandstone included in the fault. Along this portion of the fault it is usually the Lower Bhandar sandstone or the Lower Bhandar limestone which adjoins it to the south-east. From Mandalgarh to Chitor, the fault is no longer parallel to the general strike of the Vindhyan folds, but oblique to them, so that various members of the Vindhyan scale abut in turn against the Gwaliors or the granite.

At Chitor the fault takes a southward trend and leaves the Vindhyan, passing, as far as can be ascertained in poorly exposed strata, just to the east of the Sawa grit and shales, which are in consequence much crumpled and frequently inverted, but much of this section has to be guessed at.

The survey of Bundi State, Rajputana, commenced in the previous field season, was continued uninterruptedly until its completion at Lakheri by Mr. A. L. Coulson. Sub-Assistant B. C. Gupta assisted Mr. Coulson in the survey. Dr. Heron, Mr. Bradshaw and Mr. Gupta joined up with Mr. Coulson towards the end of December, and sections at Datunda, Sarorda, etc., were inspected by Dr. Heron during this period. Mr. Bradshaw and Mr. Coulson worked with joint camps for certain periods.

In tabular form, with the youngest deposit above, the rocks present in the area are as follows:—

C. Recent and Sub-Recent (Alluvium, etc.)

B. Upper Vindhyan.

Upper Bhandar : { 11. Upper Bhandar Shales and Grits.
 { 10. Upper Bhandar Limestone.
 { 9. Upper Bhandar Sandstone.

Lower Bhandar :	{	8. Sirbu Shales.
		7. Lower Bhandar Sandstone.
		6. Samria Shales.
		5. Lower Bhandar Limestone.
		4. Ganurgarh Shales.
Upper Rewa :		3. Upper Rewa Sandstone.
Lower Rewa :		2. Jhiri and Panna Shales and Lower Rewa Sandstone.
Upper Kaimur :		1. Kaimur Sandstone and Conglomerate.

A. Gwaliora.

The basement rocks of the area—which comprises parts of survey sheets, Central India and Rajputana (1 inch=1 mile) Nos. 234, 265, 266 and 294—are more allied to the Gwalior than to the Aravalli type, though it is still uncertain what the relationship of the Aravallis to the Gwaliors really is or, indeed, whether the two are really distinct.

The Gwaliors consist of limestones, phyllites, shales, sandstones, quartzites and greywacke, with intrusive reef-quartz, pegmatites and, to a lesser extent, trap. A boulder bed has been recorded in the Gwaliors at Dhaneum.

The Upper Vindhyan rest unconformably upon the Gwaliors and in no case was pegmatite found intruding the Vindhyan rocks.

The basal bed of the Upper Vindhyan is the Kaimur conglomerate, and upon this is the Kaimur sandstone, the only two members of the Kaimur division of Mallet represented in the Bundi area. The Kaimur conglomerate contains pebbles of white reef-quartz, red and black jasper, fragments of shale, sandstone and felspar and also white and black chert. The Kaimur sandstone has a distinct reddish colour. Definite sandstone and conglomerate were found in the Gwaliors in the extreme southwest of Dr. Heron's map of South-Eastern Rajputana, and Hackett's Kaimurs have had to be reduced by Mr. Coulson to one-third of their amount. The average thickness of the conglomerate is about 6 to 8 feet and that of the sandstone 100 to 120 feet.

The Panna and Jhiri shales are persistent, if somewhat thin beds, whilst the Lower Rewa sandstone is very sporadically developed. This last is usually a light-coloured flaggy sandstone. The thickness of the Jhiri shales varies to a maximum of 100 feet. The upper beds of the Jhiris contain limestone bands.

The Upper Rewa sandstone attains a thickness of 300 feet and is best developed near Bundi. Towards the north-east, it becomes calcareous and definite limestone bands appear in the rock.

The Ganurgarh shales attain a thickness of about 600 feet. Associated with the shales are very definite limestones and quartzites which latter are best seen near Lakheri.

The Lower Bhander limestone was found by Mr. Coulson to be the most important zoning division in the Upper Vindhya. Characteristically it is from 200 to 300 feet thick, a thin-bedded grey-blue, pink, or purplish rock. It shows very little crystallisation and its chief impurities are quartz and iron-oxide. Mr. Coulson notes that it appears to have been deposited from calcareous solutions under marine conditions, either before the dawn of life or under conditions which did not permit of the preservation of organic remains. No fossils have been found in the stone though it is ideally suited for their preservation. It is at present being extensively worked for lime and cement by the Bundi Portland Cement Works at Lakheri; numerous analyses show that the limestone is eminently suitable for the manufacture of cement.

The Samria shales, so named by Kishen Singh from their occurrence at Samria in Mewar, overlie the Lower Bhander limestone. They form a thin and impersistent member, though at times developed to the extent of 100 feet or so. The upper part of the shales sometimes contains a thin, hard, dark buff, limestone.

The Lower Bhander sandstone is the most strongly developed member of the Upper Vindhya and attains a thickness of about 2,600 feet. It, like the Kaimur and Rewa sandstones, would be more properly termed a quartzite. The lower beds are usually fine-grained and red; these are followed by a grit, and this by a very hard white quartzite which resembles white reef-quartz.

The Sirbu shales were found to have a total thickness of about 500 feet; associated with them are definite limestones which, however, are usually more shaly than the Lower Bhander limestone. They are fissile shales with a good cross-jointing but the same may be said of all the Upper Vindhyan shales.

The Upper Bhander sandstone was found by Mr. Coulson only in the extreme north-east of Bundi State. Its total thickness is about 80 feet or so. It conformably overlies the Sirbu shales of the Lakheri area and has always been considered as the highest member of the Upper Vindhya. In Bundi, however, this sandstone is conformably overlain by a limestone and this again by a strong series of shales and grits. The names of Upper Bhander Limestone and Upper Bhander Shales have been given to these new stages.

There can be no question of the conformity between these stages as many sections may be seen in the various river beds.

The Upper Bhander limestone is a very fine-grained rock with usually a secondary and coarser crystallisation of calcite. It breaks with a conchoidal fracture and usually shows concretionary markings. The limestone has practically no overburden and so can be easily worked. It is at present being quarried for lime. An analysis of the rock shews fewer impurities and slightly more magnesia than the Lower Bhander limestone.

The Upper Bhander shales vary little from the other shales of the Upper Vindhyan. At their top, however, there are a few grits and sandstones with interbedded shales.

Alluvium covers a great area to the south of the Vindhyan ranges.

The general strike of the area coincides with that of the Gwaliors to the north-east, i.e., N. E. to S. W. The same tectonic agencies which caused the folding of the Aravallis, Delhis and Gwaliors, persisted to the close of the Vindhyan epoch. The folding is no doubt to be regarded as the effect of pressure from the north-west against the shield of peninsular India.

The Great Boundary Fault was followed by Mr. Coulson through Bundi for about 70 miles and continues into Mewar for a further distance of 80 to 90 miles. It has been considered as a reversed fault with a throw to the north-west, usually faulting the Gwaliors against the Lower Bhander sandstone, and responsible for the metamorphism of the Datunda quartzite. Where this quartzite is formed from the lower Bhander sandstone, the boundary fault is considered to be of the nature of several parallel faults. There are other great faults in Bundi, viz., that of Motipura, the Ramgarh horse-shoe fault, the Indargarh-Bundi fault, etc. The area to the south-west of Bundi has not been so disturbed and the strata gently undulate in synclines and anticlines.

After completing the survey of Bundi, Mr. A. L. Coulson

Sirohi State; Rajputana. commenced the survey of Sirohi State in March.

In all, some 255 square miles were geologically surveyed, some 77 square miles of which constituted the Mount Abu area, the remaining 178 being in the east of the State, bordering Jodhpur and Mewar (portions of sheets, Central India and Rajputana, Nos. 96, 97, 118, 119, 1 inch=1 mile). The rocks shewed a marked similarity to the rocks noted in the *istimrari* estates of Ajmer. (*Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, vol. LVIII, pp. 66—68, 1925.)

As in that locality rocks resembling both Aravalli and Delhi occurred.

The fundamental schists have been provisionally referred to the Aravalli system. They are so profusely intruded by basic rocks, gneiss, granite and pegmatite that an enormous variety of types has resulted. Generally, according to Mr. Coulson, there are two classes, one in which there has been a relatively small influx of material and in which the resultant rock is the normal product of the metamorphism of the ancient argillaceous rocks, *e.g.*, biotite-schists, etc.; the other, in which so great a quantity of extraneous material has been intruded that the product can only be called a schist for purposes of mapping. Simple silicification gives mica-quartz-schists, but where there is abundant pegmatite, the resultant rock, with the pegmatite as discontinuous entities, resembles a gneiss to some extent.

The calc-rocks cover some 42 square miles and are of economic importance. They are usually impure limestones with biotite, quartz, muscovite, iron-oxide, apatite, zircon and sphene as impurities. Dr. Heron has noted the possibility of their being the equivalent of the "Ras" limestones (Archæan or Aravalli). They vary greatly in hardness and mineral contents, and are intruded, though to a lesser extent than the schists, by the amphibolitic rocks.

The basic intrusive series intruding the calc-rocks and the schists comprise epidiorites, hornblende-schists, pyroxene-granulites, amphibolites, etc. They all appear to be pre-Gneiss in age; in the Ajmer *istimrari* estates, some dolerites were post-Gneiss but dolerites have not been recognized in this area.

There is a great resemblance between the gneiss of the plains and that of Mount Abu. The Abu gneiss varies greatly mineralogically and texturally but the usual type is a biotite-gneiss. It contains innumerable basic xenoliths of amphibolites, which have made the gneiss slightly more basic than that of that plains.

There is a large outcrop of some $8\frac{1}{2}$ square miles of granite near Waloria stretching into Mewar. It differs markedly from the gneiss in that the dominant felspar is orthoclase instead of microcline and in the presence of vertical jointing, which gives rise to physiographical features different from the rounded tors of gneiss. Dr. Heron considers it to be the same as the "Berach" granite. In no place could the granite and gneiss be found together.

The quartzites are interesting in that they are of metasomatic origin. In only a few places have they conformable relations with the schists, etc. Their boundaries, as a rule, run haphazard across the schists and calc-rocks. They appear to be derived from the solutions which accompanied the pegmatites of both gneiss and granite, into which pegmatites they sometimes pass uniformly. A brecciated quartzite was found at Sanwara, shewing faulting to have taken place after their formation. The pegmatites belong both to the gneiss and to the granite. The usual minerals found in them are quartz, felspar, garnet, tourmaline, muscovite, etc.

The first portion of the field season was spent by Mr. E. J. Bradshaw in the geological mapping of Bundi State, in company with Mr. A. L. Coulson. In the month of March the geological survey of Mewar State was commenced, the area surveyed being a portion of that shown on map sheets $45\frac{0}{3}$ and $\frac{0}{7}$ (old No. 234) and $45\frac{0}{2}$ and $\frac{0}{6}$ (old No. 233), and chiefly comprising two groups of ridges which may be termed the Jahazpur and Sabalpura hills.

The rocks are quartzites, arkose grits, slates, phyllites and a limestone which is sometimes dolomitic and often cherty. A highly ferruginous quartz-breccia persistently accompanies the limestone at a horizon which is not always quite constant. Its origin has been attributed to solution and collapse under the intense pressure from the north-west which has affected all this region.

The "Jahazpur hills have the great Aravalli gneissic area to their north-west, with intrusions of coarse tourmaline pegmatite, while slates and garnetiferous mica-schists intervene between them and the Sabalpura hills to the south-east. Innumerable intrusions of white reef-quartz are a feature of this zone, being probably the ultimate phase of the pegmatite. There are also rare dykes of coarse amphibolite.

In the Sabalpura hills, the rocks are similar to those of the Jahazpur hills. The central portion of the former is occupied by two separated areas of the dark Aravalli gneissic granite, upon which rest, with a clear erosion unconformity marked by a conglomerate layer at their base, arkose grits succeeded upward's by the quartzites. There are a few bosses of aplite, some rare basic dykes, and abundant injections of pegmatite and white reef-quartz in the gneissic granite.

South-east of the Sabalpura hills lie the rocks of the Gwalior system, consisting mostly of shales, slates, and graywacke. Again there are abundant intrusions of white reef-quartz.

Beneath the quartzites of the Jahazpur hills, at Jawal, there is a coarse, arkose conglomerate. Similar coarse conglomerates are found elsewhere, but can never be traced for more than a short distance. The unconformity seems to be local, and further evidence will be required before it will be possible to decide whether it corresponds to the great discordance which occurs between the Aravalli and Delhi systems.

Mr. Bradshaw remarks that the striking features of the whole area are the steady north-east and south-west strike, and the cleavage dip which is usually steep and to the north-west. It is clear that the original structure has been almost entirely obliterated and that the present is one which has been impressed on all the rocks of the area as a whole by intense stresses from the north-west. There is evidence that the original dips were low and rolling, while the Jahazpur and Sabalpura hills represent isoclinal folds greatly extended in the direction of the general strike. The base of the rocks involved is visible in the unconformable junction with the Aravalli gneissic granite, and possibly in the Jawal unconformity, but their relation to the Gwalior slates and greywackes, and to the Aravalli schists, is at present uncertain.

Sub-Assistant B. C. Gupta was engaged in mapping the north-western frontier of Bundi and portions of the three districts, Mandargarh, Bundi and Udaipur States; Rajputana. Chitorgarh and Chhoti Sadri, of the Udaipur State. With a general east-north-easterly strike and persistent north-north-westerly dip the Upper Vindhyan group is represented in the vicinity of Bundi City by the Lower Bhandar sandstone, the Samria shales, the Bhandar limestone, the Ganurgarh shales, the Upper Rewa sandstone and the Jhiri shales. In the valley W.N.W. of Bundi City the Upper Vindhyan have been folded into a broad anticline with the horizontally-lying Ganurgarh shales at the centre.

The country lying between the Vindhyan belt on the south and the Bundi-Jaipur boundary line on the north is, according to Mr. Gupta, occupied by older rocks, the prevailing types being shales, slates, phyllites, sandstones and limestones, provisionally classed as Aravallis or Gwaliors. True mica-schists and the characteristic Aravalli gneisses, so common in the area further north-west in Ajmer

Merwara, are conspicuously absent here, and lithologically the rocks are more or less reminiscent of the recorded descriptions of the Gwalior of south-eastern Rajputana.

Work was carried southward along the fault-line marking the junction between the Vindhyan and the Aravallis. In the vicinity of Mandalgarh city, the Vindhyan, represented by their upper members, have been anticlinally folded, the Bhander limestone forming the core and the Lower Bhander sandstone the flanks. Further west and south on approaching Chitorgarh, other members of the Upper Vindhyan series appear. From Basi ($25^{\circ} 1' : 74^{\circ} 48'$) southward the older members of the Vindhyan system begin to appear, and below the Kaimur quartzite the Suket shales, the Nimbaheera limestone and the 'purple' shales appear successively in folds with north-and-south axes and low dips.

On the north and west of the boundary fault in the Mandalgarh and Chitor districts Mr. Gupta notes that the ancient shales, etc., have been intruded by granites and dolerites as well as by the pegmatitic quartz. In the south the eastern portion of the Chhoti Sadri area has been greatly covered by the Deccan-Trap lava flows; the country between Neemuch and Chhoti Sadri contains a number of flat-topped trap hills and plateaux, besides innumerable patches of laterite.

During the spring of this year work was continued by Mr. W. D. West under the guidance of Dr. G. E. Pilgrim in the Central Himalayan regions, starting in the Simla Hill States. After a preliminary examination of the rocks at Solon and Simla, and between these two places along the cart road, a traverse was made from Solon to Chakrata along the south side of the Chor mountain.

In many ways the conclusions reached differ fundamentally from those held in the past by Medlicott and R. D. Oldham. In particular the correlation of the rocks above the Blaini at Simla and Jutogh with the Krol and Infra-Krol of the type area is doubted. These Simla rocks, highly metamorphosed in places, are regarded by Dr. Pilgrim and Mr. West as much older than the Krol and Blaini, and as having been brought into their present position above the latter rocks by at least one recumbent fold, accompanied by over-thrusting.

Near Dudham ($30^{\circ} 53' : 77^{\circ} 17'$), on the north side of the Giri River, is a section similar in structure to that seen at Simla. On

the south side of the Giri is the normal sequence of Infra-Blaini overlain by Blaini, Infra-Krol and Krol. But on the north side the Infra-Blaini and Blaini are overlain by a series of quartzites, crushed purple conglomerates, and schists (Jagas beds), evidently much older. We here have a structure very similar to that seen at Simla; and the fact that the normal sequence is seen so near by is additional evidence for regarding the beds above the Blaini as out of place. Their greater age is suggested from their metamorphosed nature, and they are thought perhaps to be correlated with R. D. Oldham's Jaunsar beds. In the Pervi Nala just north of this spot the Blaini beds have been seen lying unconformably upon these beds.

A still older series of rocks—quartzites, slates, carbonaceous slates and black limestone—evidently corresponding to Oldham's 'Carbonaceous series,' and perhaps including the Jutogh Limestone, seem to have been thrust over the Jagas beds, and are themselves repeated by much folding. Later work indicated that part at least of Oldham's Chakrata limestone is of the same horizon. Between Haripur and Geruani, on the south-eastern spur of the Chor, a big recumbent fold of these beds was seen, and interpreted as a syncline opening to the south.

On approaching the Chor granite the increase of metamorphism is at once evident. It is, however, essentially of a regional type, and it is thought that the extra heat available, superimposed upon the regional stresses, was responsible for the higher grade of metamorphism. The change is marked by the incoming of the minerals muscovite, biotite, garnet and staurolite, in that order on approaching the granite, though biotite is not always prominent. The sillimanite zone is never reached. The rocks are at first highly schistose, and in the higher grades are coarse gneisses. In certain beds, the carbonaceous slates, porphyroblasts of ottrelite, or of a mineral closely allied to it, are developed; this mineral comes in before garnet, but is also present in the garnet zone.

The intrusion of the Chor granite is thus regarded by Mr. West as contemporaneous with the movements that produced the folding and the cleavage of the rocks, and this is supported by the fact that the granite is itself often highly foliated. This age must be at least pre-Blaini, for the latter rocks have been brought up by thrusting within the metamorphic aureole, but are themselves unmetamorphosed; microscopic evidence confirms this view.

Further east, near and in the Tons river, is a set of beds which are evidently younger than the Jaunsars, but beneath which they are now seen; they are possibly Infra-Blaini. In the Chakrata district itself sufficient work was not done to justify any definite conclusions. The beds by Chakrata and Kailana however appear to be of the supposed Infra-Blaini type as seen in the Tons. It is also thought that there are at least two limestones of quite different ages, which have hitherto been mapped as one in the Jaunsar rocks.

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THE ZONAL DISTRIBUTION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE
LARGER FORAMINIFERA OF THE MIDDLE AND LOWER
KIRTHAR SERIES (MIDDLE EOCENE) OF PARTS OF
WESTERN INDIA. BY W. L. F. NUTTALL, D.F.C., M.A.,
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1—8.).

(1) INTRODUCTION.

The following article includes a very brief account of the stratigraphy of the Lower and Middle Kirthar (Middle Eocene) strata of parts of Western India, and a detailed description of the commoner and larger *Foraminifera* found in these beds. The specimens were collected by Mr. D. Dale Condit and the writer during a geological reconnaissance undertaken on behalf of the Whitehall Petroleum Corporation during the winters of 1920-21 and 1923-24. The writer and editor are indebted to the Directors of the Corporation for permitting the publication of this article. Thanks are also due to Professors M. Boule and H. Douvillé for kindly giving the writer every facility to examine D'Archiac's types from India and other specimens in the Paris Museums. Dr. W. D. Lang found Sowerby's type specimens from Cutch and was kind enough to lend other material for comparison from the British Museum (Natural History). The figured specimens and types of new species are deposited in the Sedgwick Museum, Cambridge. The bibliographical references will be found at the end of the paper. In the palæontological portion the synonymic lists are incomplete, the references most useful for identification being given.

(2) THE STRATIGRAPHY OF THE KIRTHAR SERIES.

The Kirthar series consists of massive white Nummulitic limestones and olive to gray shales, which occur throughout parts of Cutch (Kachh), Sind, Baluchistan and the Punjab in Western India. Lithologically they are similar to the rocks of the Laki series, which in some areas underlie them conformably, and are distinguished by containing a different fauna of *Foraminifera*, which I have described

recently elsewhere (48). The regions in which the Kirthar series crop out have been examined chiefly by Wynne, Griesbach, Blanford, Oldham and Vredenburg, and the geology is described in Memoirs and Records of the Geological Survey of India. (67, 30, 3, 4, 49, 50, 65, 66). In this article it is not proposed to give a lengthy account of the stratigraphy of the Kirthar series, other than that which is necessary to show the vertical distribution of the larger *Foraminifera*.

The Kirthar series has been divided into three main groups the Upper, Middle and Lower, and Vredenburg during his extensive geological reconnaissances in Western India located where these groups crop out (65, 66). In 1906 he published a table showing the vertical distribution of the Indian *Nummulites* (63c). He mentioned several species (see p. 126) the identification of some of which is uncertain and since he has not described any of the forms which he recorded, his table is of relatively little value for determining the different stratigraphical horizons. In this table he divided the Middle Kirthar into A and B, as well as the Upper Kirthar into 1, 2, 3 and 4, without giving any exact explanation as to what these sub-divisions represent. A partial revision of his conclusions appeared in 1912 (20). He classified as Upper Kirthar the massive limestones of the Kirthar Range and the lower Mula Valley, and incorporated in this division 2,000 feet of strata which I have not examined. The knowledge of the fauna contained in these beds is very incomplete. In the area that I have visited I have been able to recognize by a study of the faunas the following groups which are lithologically indistinguishable :—(A) Upper part of the Middle Kirthar, (B) Lower part of the Middle Kirthar, (C) Lower Kirthar. These will be described separately below.

(A) Upper Part of the Middle Kirthar.

I have collected specimens of *Foraminifera* from about 300 to 400 feet of limestones and shales of the upper part of the Middle Kirthar. These beds crop out in the hill range south-east of Damach, Thano Bula Khan *taluqa*, Karachi district, in the Laki Range west of Laki village and in the hills south of Rohri, Sind. Near Damach and in the Laki Range the upper part of the Middle Kirthar rests unconformably on the Laki Limestone of the Laki series (Lower Eocene) and is overlain unconformably by the Nari series (Oligocene). In these areas the lower part of the Middle Kirthar and Lower

Kirthar are absent. In the hills south of Rohri the stratigraphical relations of the beds exposed are not shown, as the Middle Kirthar crops out of the Indus River alluvium.

The fauna is different from that of the lower part of the Middle Kirthar and the *Foraminifera* that I have found in these beds are *Nummulites carteri*, *N. gizehensis*, *N. lævigatus*, *N. aff. scaber*, *Assilina cancellata*, sp. nov., *A. papillata*, sp. nov., *A. spira*, *Alveolina elliptica*, and *Discocyclina sowerbyi*, nom. nov.

(B) The Lower Part of the Middle Kirthar.

The areas in which I have examined outcrops of the lower part of the Middle Kirthar are the Dera Ghazi Khan district of the Punjab, the Loralai district, the Bugti Hills, parts of Kalat and Las Bela States of Baluchistan and Cutch (Kachh). The rocks consist of not more than 1,300 feet of massive white limestones and shales containing abundant *Foraminifera*. The group is characterized by containing many *Discocyclina*, the fauna collected from these beds being:—*Nummulites acutus*, *N. atacicus*, *N. beaumonti*, *N. lævigatus*, *N. maculatus*, sp. nov., *N. obtusus*, *N. stamineus*, sp. nov., *Assilina exponens*, *Dictyoconoides cooki*, *Discocyclina dispansa*, *D. sowerbyi*, nom. nov., *D. javana* var *indica*, nov., *Actinocyclina alticostata*, sp. nov. and *Alveolina elliptica*.

In most localities the Middle Kirthar (B) has a higher percentage of shale than the Lower Kirthar, but generally the groups are lithologically indistinguishable. The line demarcating the lower limit of the former is entirely artificial, as the rocks pass down conformably into the latter.

In all the areas mentioned above the lower part of the Middle Kirthar is overlain unconformably by Miocene or Oligocene beds, as described later. At no point have I examined a section in which the lower part of the Middle Kirthar passes up conformably into the upper. The marked differences in the faunas between the two groups indicate a non-sequence at the top of the lower part of the Middle Kirthar. The only species of *Foraminifera* that I have observed to be common to the two are *Nummulites obtusus*, *N. lævigatus*, *Alveolina elliptica* and *Discocyclina sowerbyi*, nom. nov.

Previous to the deposition of the Oligocene the Eocene beds of the Bugti Hills, Loralai and Dera Ghazi Khan districts were elevated,

subjected to subaerial denudation, and the upper part of the Middle Kirthar as well as the Upper Kirthar removed.

The Middle Kirthar (B) is well exposed on the flanks of foothills of the Sulaiman Range extending from a point north of Fort Munro in the Punjab for about 40 miles to Drug in Baluchistan. In this area the generalized section is as follows:—

	Thickness in feet.
PLEISTOCENE AND PLIOCENE. Upper Siwalik conglomerates, underlain by Lower Siwalik sandstones and shales,	about 10,000
MIOCENE. Gaj. Ferruginous sandstones and pebble beds, (The contact of the Gaj with the underlying Kirthar is unconformable).	about 1,000
EOCENE.	

Lower part of the Middle Kirthar.

Brown to blue shales with much secondary gypsum. Near the base are several calcareous bands almost entirely made up of <i>Discocyclina undulata</i> sp. nov. <i>D. Sowerbyi</i> , nom. nov. and <i>D. javana</i> var <i>indica</i> nov., which beds form an horizon that can be traced for many miles. In places these rocks also contain <i>Nummulites atacicus</i>	1,200
A persistent bed of pure white limestone, forming a prominent strike ridge, which can be traced for over 30 miles. This limestone is very fossiliferous, the lower part containing abundant <i>Discocyclina dispansa</i> , also <i>D. sowerbyi</i> , <i>Nummulites beaumonti</i> , <i>N. acutus</i> and <i>Dictyoconoides cooki</i>	20 to 30

Lower Kirthar.

Blue grey shales weathering olive green with much secondary gypsum in the form of clear selenite crystals. Near the top is a brown sandy limestone crowded with <i>Ostræa</i>	900
Limestone with grey to black chert bands	40
Persistent bed of massive white amorphous gypsum	15
Blue-grey shales	400
Massive white limestone with <i>Nummulites atacicus</i>	1,300

Laki series. Ghazij Shales.

Blue-grey fissile shales with thin limestone bands in the upper part, containing <i>Nummulites atacicus</i> and <i>Assilina granulosa</i> . about	2,000
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Dunghan Limestone.

Conglomeratic hard dark limestone interbedded with olive shales, containing <i>Alveolina</i> , resting unconformably on Cretaceous Pub Sandstone,	about 500
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Total thickness of Eocene rocks measured	6,385
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The following is the section of the Kirthar beds on the south flank of the Pir Karoh Range, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan, where there is less shale than in the section further north described above:—

MIOCENE. Gaj sandstones and shales with mammalian and other bones.

OLIGOCENE. Nari. Very ferruginous calcareous sandstone, in some localities glauconitic, containing *Nummulites intermedius* and *Pecten* sp. This bed marks an unconformable contact at the top of the Kirthar series.

EOCENE.

Lower part of the Middle Kirthar.

Nodular white unfossiliferous limestone	75
Olive shales	300
Intercalated limestones and shales with <i>Discocyclus javana</i> var. <i>indica</i> nov., at base	200
Nodular and massive white limestone with <i>Nummulites stamineus</i> sp. nov.	325
Massive unfossiliferous limestone with chert bands	250
White nodular limestone with <i>Nummulites beaumonti</i> , <i>Discocyclus javana</i> var. <i>indica</i> nov., <i>Dictyoconoides cooki</i> , and <i>Alveolina elliptica</i>	60
Chocolate, olive or greenish shale, with <i>Alveolina elliptica</i>	70

Lower Kirthar.

Massive limestone with some intercalated gypseous and shaly beds, with <i>Nummulites obtusus</i> . Base not seen	700
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Total thickness of Kirthar beds measured.	1,980
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In Cutch the lower part of the Middle Kirthar consists of about 500 feet of well-bedded white limestones, overlain unconformably by about 10 feet of Nari Limestone with *Nummulites intermedius* and *N. clipeus* (46), and at its base about 75 feet of shales which rest unconformably on a laterite at the top of the Deccan Trap (67). The *Foraminifera* that occur in the limestone are *Nummulites acutus*, *N. maculatus* sp. nov., *N. stamineus* sp. nov., *N. obtusus*, *Assilina exponens*, *Alveolina elliptica*, *Discocyclus dispersa*, *D. sowerbyi* nom. nov., *D. javana* var. *indica* nov., *Actinocyclus alticostatus* sp. nov., and *Dictyoconoides cooki*.

(C) The Lower Kirthar.

I have examined the Lower Kirthar rocks in the Dera Ghazi Khan district of the Punjab, and in the Loralai district, Bugti Hills and

Bolan Pass of Baluchistan, where they consists of about 1,500 to 2,500 feet of massive, white, rather unfossiliferous limestones intercalated locally with shales and occasional sandy or gypseous beds. They rest conformably on the Ghazij Shales and there is no sharp line separating the latter from the Lower Kirthar. In the upper part of the Ghazij Shales are thin limestones crowded with *Assilina granulosa*, and also containing *Nummulites atacicus* as a common fossil. I have collected the following *Foraminifera* from the Lower Kirthar: *Nummulites atacicus*, *N. obtusus* and *Assilina exponens*.

In the palæontological portion of this paper the above species of *Foraminifera* are described, and in each case a list of the localities is given stating where the specimens were collected. The following table giving the stratigraphical distribution of the *Foraminifera* of the Middle and Lower Kirthar is provisional. It is based solely on the above occurrences, the microspheric form only being quoted. If careful collecting were undertaken over a larger area other species would be found and it is also not improbable that slight alterations would have to be made in the vertical distribution of some of the species mentioned below. It is clear, however, that the three divisions in the Kirthar series given below can be distinguished by their containing characteristic faunas of *Foraminifera*.

(3) TABLE SHOWING THE STRATIGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF FORAMINIFERA IN THE LOWER AND MIDDLE KIRTHAR SERIES.

Genus and Species.	Laki series.	KIRTHAR SERIES.		
		Lower Kirthar. (C)	Lower part of Middle Kirthar (B).	Upper part of Middle Kirthar (A).
<i>Nummulites atacicus</i> , Leym .				
<i>Assilina exponens</i> , (Sow.) .				
<i>Nummulites obtusus</i> , Sow. .				
<i>Nummulites acutus</i> , Sow. .				
<i>Nummulites beaumonti</i> , d'Arch. and Haime.				

(3) TABLE SHOWING THE STRATIGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF FORAMINIFERA IN THE LOWER AND MIDDLE KIRTHAR SERIES - *contd.*

Genus and Species.	Laki series.	KIRTHAR SERIES.		
		Lower Kirthar (C).	Lower part of Middle Kirthar (B).	Upper part of Middle Kirthar (A).
<i>Nummulites maculatus</i> , sp. nov.				
<i>Nummulites stamineus</i> , sp. nov.				
<i>Dictyoconoides cooki</i> , Carter .				
<i>Actinocyclus alticostata</i> , sp. nov.				
<i>Discocyclus diaphana</i> , (Sow.) .				
<i>Discocyclus javana</i> , (Verbeek) var. <i>indica</i> , nov.				
<i>Discocyclus undulata</i> , sp. nov.				
<i>Discocyclus sowerbyi</i> , nom. nov.				
<i>Alveolina elliptica</i> , (Sow.) .				
<i>Nummulites laevigatus</i> , (Brug.)				
<i>Nummulites carteri</i> , d'Arch. and Haime.				
<i>Nummulites gizehensis</i> , (Forks.) .				
<i>Nummulites aff. scaber</i> , Lam.				
<i>Assilina cancellata</i> , sp. nov. .				
<i>Assilina papillata</i> , sp. nov. .				
<i>Assilina spira</i> , de Roissy. .				

(4) THE AGE OF THE MIDDLE AND LOWER KIRTHAR SERIES AS DETERMINED FROM THE LARGER FORAMINIFERA.

The following species of *Nummulites* and *Assilina* that occur in Europe are found in the Middle and Lower Kirthar series of India.

I have only quoted the microspheric forms and have stated the known stratigraphical range of the species in the two regions :—

Genus and Species	Stratigraphical range observed by the writer in India.	Established stratigraphical range in Europe.
<i>Nummulites atacicus</i>	Laki series to lower part of Middle Kirthar.	Lower Eocene to Lutetian. (7i, 21c, 27.)
<i>Nummulites lævigatus</i>	Middle Kirthar	Lutetian (7b, 16, 26, 27).
<i>Nummulites aff. scaber</i>	Do.	Do. (7b).
<i>Nummulites obtusus</i>	Lower Kirthar to upper part of Middle Kirthar.	Lutetian to Auversian (7e, 27, 26).
<i>Nummulites gizehensis</i>	Upper part of Middle Kirthar.	Lutetian (7g, 26).
<i>Assilina exponens</i>	Upper part of Ghazij Shales (Laki series) to lower part of Middle Kirthar.	Lutetian (21d, 27) to Auversian (7j).
<i>Assilina spira</i>	Upper part of Middle Kirthar.	Lutetian (7h)

In my recent paper on the Laki series (46) I have classified these beds as Lower Eocene, and the above evidence from the species of Foraminifera indicates that the Lower and Middle Kirthar is equivalent to the Lutetian of Europe.

Throughout the area, the stratigraphy of which I have described briefly above, the lower or upper part of the Middle Kirthar is overlain unconformably by Miocene or Oligocene beds. According to Vredenburg (63d) the massive limestones of the Kirthar Range and the Mula Pass form the Upper Kirthar series. These beds he classified as Upper Lutetian, and according to him beds of Auversian to Priabonian age are absent in Western India. Our knowledge of the foraminiferal fauna of the Upper Kirthar is still very incomplete, so that the age of these beds cannot be determined with any certainty. There is however little doubt that the Lower and Middle Kirthar are equivalent in age to the greater part of the Lutetian of Europe.

With the exception of *Nummulites lævigatus* the stratigraphical distribution of the species mentioned above is approximately the same in India as in Europe. In Europe *N. lævigatus* appears in the Lower Lutetian (21d and 26), whereas in India the lowest horizon at which I have observed this species is the lower part of the Middle

Kirthar, probably Middle Lutetian. The mollusca of the Kirthar Series have so far not been the subject of a systematic study. The meagre information regarding this group included in d'Archiac and Haime's monograph (2) throws little light on the age of the beds.

Middle Eocene strata containing among other species *Nummulites acutus* (= *vredenburgi*), *Discocyclina javana* and numerous other Discocyclines have been described in Java, Borneo, the Moluccas, and New Guinea (61, 62, 18, 20, 23). This fauna resembles that of the lower part of the Middle Kirthar of Western India.

(5) PALAEONTOLOGICAL DETAILS.

(A) REVISION OF PREVIOUS DESCRIPTIONS OF NUMMULITES AND OTHER TERTIARY FORAMINIFERA FROM INDIA.

(a) Sowerby's *Description of Tertiary Fossils from Cutch.*

In 1837 J. de C. Sowerby (58, 59) described a collection of fossils from Cutch, which included the following species of Foraminifera from the Middle Kirthar :—

Nummulites (*Nummulina*) *acutus* (see p. 133).

Nummulites (*Nummulina*) *obtusus* (see p. 137).

Assilina (*Nummulina*) *exponens* (see p. 112).

Alveolina (*Fasciolites*) *elliptica* (see Nuttall 47).

Discocyclina (*Lycophris*) *dispana* (see p. 115).

Discocyclina (*Lycophris*) *ephippium* (see p. 14').

I have collected specimens of all these species from Cutch and have re-described them giving details of the internal structure, which were for the most part omitted by Sowerby. Sowerby's types of each of these species, except that of *D. dispana*, are preserved in the British Museum (Natural History).

(b) *The Monograph on Nummulites by Messrs. D'Archiac and Haime.*

D'Archiac and Haime in their classical monograph of 1853 on the genus *Nummulites* recorded from India 18 species of *Nummulites* and *Assilina* which are enumerated below (2a). It is unfortunate that throughout this publication these authors did not state the localities from which their figured specimens of *Nummulites* were collected, as the species are described from widely separated parts of Europe and Asia. In their text when localities in Western India

are mentioned they are usually vague, and most of the specimens from Sind are recorded as having been found in the Chaîne D'Hala, which as a range of hills is purely a geographer's myth. By the Chaîne D'Hala D'Archiac appears to have meant parts of the Kirthar Range and any of the hill ranges of Lower Sind. Also when the specimens described from India by D'Archiac were collected little was known of the geological succession of the Tertiary rocks, and in consequence no effort was made to separate the species according to their stratigraphical horizons. These factors deduct much from the value of their work.

In 1903 Thévenin (60) by making a careful examination of D'Archiac's collection and by comparing the specimens with the figures was able to find a number of the types and determine which are the figured specimens. Unfortunately certain specimens were inadequately labelled and others lost so that our information in this respect is incomplete. In the list below I have marked with an asterisk five species of *Nummulites* from India of which the original types or figured specimens are still preserved in the *Musée de Paléontologie* at Paris, and have discussed separately each species recorded from India by D'Archiac:—

Nummulites lyelli, A. and H. According to Thévenin D'Archiac's Plate II, figs. 10, 10a, 10b, var. b, is doubtfully ascribed to specimens of this species from Sind. Boussac (7a) and other recent writers classify this species as synonymous with *N. girz'hensis*, Forsk (see p. 139)

**Nummulites sublævigata*, A. and H. D'Archiac's Plate IV, figs. 8, a to b. This species is synonymous with *N. intermedius*, D'Arch. and occurs in the Oligocene Nari beds (See Nuttall 46).

Nummulites scaber, Lam. D'Archiac and Haime included in this species *N. acutus* of Sowerby, which is different, as described below (p. 133).

**Nummulites obtusus*, Sow. D'Archiac's Plate VI, figs. 13, a to c. The figures and description concord with typical globose forms of the species. Locality, Sind (see p. 137).

**Nummulites lucasana*, Defr. D'Archiac's Plate VII, fig. 10 var. c, from "Subathoo" in the Punjab. The specimen named thus is referred to *N. perforatus*, the megalospheric form of *N. obtusus* (see p. 138).

Nummulites ramondi, Defr. The specimens referred to under this name may be young forms of *N. ataticus* (see p. 129).

Nummulites biarritzensis, D'Arch, partly synonymous with *N. atacicus* (see p. 129).

Nummulites beaumonti, A. and H., described below (p. 130).

**Nummulites vicaryi*, A. and H. D'Archiac's Plate IX figs. 1, a to b. A nummulite, the septal filaments of which are without granules and very turbulent, which I have not found. Locality, Sind.

Nummulites exponens, Sow. (see *Assilina exponens* p. 142).

Nummulites granulosa, D'Arch. (see *Assilina granulosa*, which is characteristic of the Laki series; see also Nuttall (48a)).

Nummulites spira, de Roissy (see *Assilina spira*, p. 143).

Nummulites garansensis, Joly and Leym. This species is synonymous with *N. fichteli*, Michelotti, the megalospheric form of *N. intermedius* from the Nari Oligocene beds (see Nuttall 46).

**Nummulites carteri*, A. and H. (see p. 139).

Nummulites guettardi, A. and H., probably the same as *N. subatacicus* (see p. 130).

Nummulites leymerei, A. and H. The megalospheric form of *Assilina granulosa*, which occurs in the Laki series (see *Assilina leymerei* in Nuttall (48b)).

Nummulites miscella, A. and H., a *Siderolites* occurring in the Upper Ranikot.

Operculina tattacensis, A. and H., synonymous with *Assilina granulosa* from the Laki series (see Nuttall 48a).

(c) *H. J. Carter's Papers.*

Two important papers on *Foraminifera* in Western India were published by Carter in the years 1853 and 1861 (9 and 10). I have been unable to find Carter's collection of fossils, although in 1900 Chapman mentioned having found and examined part in the British Museum (Natural History) (11). Carter described the following species of *Nummulites* and *Assilina* from India:—

Operculina sp., (1853) pp. 167-168. Pl. VII, figs. 3-4. Equivalent to *Assilina granulosa*, D'Arch. (See Nuttall 48a).

Assilina irregularis, Cart. (1853) p. 168. Pl. VII, figs. 5-6 (1861), p. 366. Equivalent to *Assilina spira*, de Roissy (see p. 143).

Assilina sp. (1853), pp. 168-169. Pl. VII, figs. 7 to 8 (1861), pp. 367-368. Pl. XV, figs. 1, a, b and c. Equivalent to *Assilina exponens* (see p. 142).

Nummulina sp.? (1853) p. 169. Pl. VII, figs. 9-10 (1861), pp. 369-370. Equivalent to *Nummulites carteri*, D'Arch. & H. (see p. 139).

Nummulina obtusa, Sow. (1853) p. 170, Pl. VII, figs. 13-14 (1861), pp. 371-373. (see p. 137).

Nummulina acuta? Sow. (1853), p. 171. Pl. VII, figs. 21-22 (1861), pp. 376-378. Equivalent to *Nummulites intermedius*, D'Arch., of the Oligocene Nari beds (see Nuttall 46).

Assilina obesa, Cart. (1861), p. 368. Pl. XV, figs 2 a, b, c and d. Equivalent to *Assilina mamillata*, (D'Arch.) (see p. 143.)

Nummulites broachensis, Cart. (1861), p. 373, Pl. XV, figs. 3, a to e. I have not found this species.

Nummulites biarritzensis, A. and H. (1861), pp. 373-374. Probably *N. atacicus* or *N. stamineus* (see pp. 129, 131).

Nummulites ramondi, Defr. (1861), pp. 374-375. Probably young *N. atacicus* (see p. 129).

Nummulites ke'atensis, Cart. (1861), p. 376, Pl. XV, fig. 6, a to d. I have not found this species.

Nummulites irregularis, Desh. (1861), p. 376. (see Nuttall (48)) This species I have found in the Laki series.

In addition to the above Carter also figured and described Kirthar species of *Discocyclus* (see p. 145), as well as numerous Eocene *Alveolina* (see Nuttall 47 and 48c) and *Dictyoconoides cooki*, (Cart.) (see Nuttall 47).

(d) Articles by E. W. Vredenburg and G. de P. Cotter.

In 1906 Vredenburg (63a and b) described as a new species *Nummulites douvillei* (=vredenburgi, auctorum) from Cutch, which species for reasons given below (p. 133) I regard as synonymous with *N. acutus*, Sowerby. In the same article he gave a table showing the zonal distribution of Indian *Nummulites*. As stated above he has not described any of the species mentioned, and some of the identifications are uncertain. The species which he records as occurring in the Lower and Middle Kirthar are as follows:—*Nummulites perforatus* (which is synonymous with *N. obtusus*, see p. 137), *Assilina spira* (see p. 143), *Nummulites beaumonti* (see p. 130), *Nummulites murchisoni* (I have not observed this species in India), *N. discorbina* (I have not observed this species in India; a closely related form is *N. stamineus*, sp. nov., see p. 131), *N. lævigatus*, (see p. 134), *Assilina exponens* (see p. 142), *A. sufflata*, Vred.—a

species which was not described, said to be related to *A. spira*, possibly *A. papillata*, nov. (see p. 144). *Nummulites douvillei*, Vred. the equivalent of *N. acutus*, Sow., see p. 133), *N. gizehensis* (see p. 139) and *N. irregularis*, which I have only observed in the Laki series (see Nuttall 48d).

In 1914 Cotter (13) described a new species, *Nummulites yawensis*, from Burma, which I have not found in Western India. He also discussed the zonal distribution of Indian *Nummulites*.

LIST OF FORAMINIFERA AND CLASSIFICATION OF NUMMULITES.

It has been well established by Douvillé, Boussac (6, 17, 21, 22, 28a) and others that the only satisfactory classification of the species of the genus *Nummulites* is by the structure of the septal filaments. In many of the specimens found in Europe the structure of the septal filaments is visible on the exterior of the test or is exposed by polishing a surface. In the case of the *Nummulites* from the Kirthar series, in a few instances the septal filaments are visible on the weathered surface of the shell, but usually the state of preservation is such that their structure is not even made clear by means of a polished surface. This is due to the fossil shell consisting of pure white calcium carbonate, and what were originally cavities enclosing the sarcode being filled with transparent colourless or translucent white calcite. In specimens preserved thus the structure of the septal filaments is only made clear by cutting a thin horizontal section of the test, which, if made immediately above the median chamber layer, shows the structure of these filaments from the beginning of the growth of the shell to the adult stage.

In describing the species of *Nummulites* and *Assilina* I have employed the following terms:—

For the “filets cloisonnaires” of French writers the term “septal filaments” is used. These may be “radiate,” “reticulate,” “meandriiform” or as in *Assilina* (see p. 128). The Eocene reticulate *Nummulites* described have a “simple mesh,” which term corresponds to Boussac’s “réseau simple.” The term “column,” employed by Carpenter (8), is used in the same sense as “piliers” of French writers. In certain species the columns where they come to the outer surface of the shell form protruberances known as “granules” (see Plate II figs. 2 and 3).

An "axial" section is cut at right angles across the shell perpendicular to the plane of symmetry, as in Plate II, figure 5. An "equatorial" section is cut through the plane of symmetry showing the median chamber layer as in Plate I, figure 6. In an equatorial section there are the chambers, the septa, the whorl laminæ; the width of the chambers is measured parallel to the radius, the length parallel to the whorl laminæ. A "lateral" section is cut immediately above an equatorial section so as to show the structure of the septal filaments as in Plate I, figure 7. By Form A is meant the megalospheric form, and by Form B the microspheric; these are given separate specific names. Since the microspheric form is the larger it shows best the characteristics of the septal filaments, which are of prime importance in recognizing the couples A and B.

The following classification of the *Nummulites*, based on the structure of the septal filaments, has been adopted, there being however no sharp dividing line between groups 2 and 3:—

- | | | |
|--|---|--|
| (1) Septal filaments without columns, radiate | { | (a) <i>N. atacicus</i> , Leym. (B). |
| | | <i>N. subatacicus</i> , Douv. (A). |
| | | (b) <i>N. beaumonti</i> , A. and H. (B). |
| | | (c) <i>N. stamineus</i> , sp. nov. (B). |
| (2) Septal filaments with columns, reticulate with simple mesh | { | (a) <i>N. acutus</i> , Sow. (B). |
| | | <i>N. djokdjokartæ</i> , Martin. (A). |
| | | (b) <i>N. lævigatus</i> (Brug.) (B). |
| | | <i>N. lamarki</i> , A. and H. (A). |
| | | (c) <i>N. aff. scaber</i> , Lam. (B). |
| | | (d) <i>N. obtusus</i> , Sow. (B). |
| | | <i>N. perforatus</i> , (de Mont.) (A). |
| (3) Septal filaments with columns, meandriform | { | (a) <i>N. carteri</i> , A. and H. (B). |
| | | (b) <i>N. gizehensis</i> , (Forks.) (B). |
| | | (c) <i>N. maculatus</i> , sp. nov. (B). |
| Genus <i>Assilina</i> . (Sometimes considered as a subgenus of <i>Nummulites</i>) | { | (a) <i>A. cancellata</i> , sp. nov. (B). |
| | | <i>A. subcancellata</i> , sp. nov. (A). |
| | | (b) <i>A. exponens</i> , (Sow.) (B). |
| | | <i>A. mamillata</i> , (D'Arch.) (A). |
| | | (c) <i>A. spira</i> , de Roissy. (B). |
| | | (d) <i>A. papillata</i> , sp. nov. (B). |
| | | <i>A. subpapillata</i> , sp. nov. (A). |

The Foraminifera of other genera are:—

Orbitoides.

Discocyclina.

D. dispansa, (Sow.)

D. javana, (Verbeek) var. *indica*, nov.

D. sowerbyi, nom. mut.

D. undulata, nov.

Actinocyclus.

A. alticostata, nov.

Alveolina.

A. elliptica, Sow. (see Nuttall 48).

Dictyoconoides.

D. cooki, (Carter.) (see Nuttall 48).

In the case of the *Orbitoides* the terms axial and equatorial sections are employed in the same sense as with *Nummulites*. A "lateral" section is cut horizontally a very short distance above the upper surface, so as to show the adult development of the columnus of shell substance in the lateral chamber layer.

(C) Description of the species of Kirthar *Nummulites*, *Assilinae* and *Orbitoides*.

Genus, NUMMULITES, Lamarck.

(I) *Nummulites* with radiate septal filaments without columns.

NUMMULITES ATACICUS, Leymerie.

1844. *Nummulites atacicus*, Leymerie. (39).

1925. *Nummulites atacicus*, Leym. Nuttall (48e) cum syn.

In a recent paper I have figured and described *N. atacicus* from the Laki series of India. The representatives of the species as found in the Kirthar beds are characterized by having sinuous septal filaments, as in Plate XXV. figures 1 and 2 of the above paper. This species which is found throughout the Laki series, ranges up into the lower part of the Middle Kirthar. I have examined numerous specimens from the following localities:—

- (a) From the Middle Kirthar (B), about 2500 feet above the contact of the Lower Kirthar with the Ghazij Shales, Garnaif hot spring, Buzdar tribal tract, Dera Ghazi Khan foothills, S. W. Punjab. A large variety, its average diameter 23.5 mm., maximum observed diameter

28.8 mm., average thickness 5.8 mm., maximum thickness 6.7 mm. Average ratio of diameter to thickness, 4 to 1. There are 9 whorls in the first 3 mm. of radius and 16 in a radius of 9 mm.

- (b) From the shales of the Middle Kirthar (B); N. E. of Pabuni Chauki, Las Bela State, Baluchistan. Average diameter 12.1 mm., average thickness 5.3 mm. Average ratio of diameter to thickness 2.3 to 1.
- (c) From the shales of the Middle Kirthar (B), west of the Hab River, west of Khand Jhand, Karachi district, Sind. Similar to b.
- (d) From the top of the Lower Kirthar; 6 miles N. E. of Rarisham, Loralai district, Baluchistan. Average diameter 14.9 mm., maximum observed diameter 16.3 mm., average thickness 4.8 mm., maximum thickness 5.2 mm. Ratio of diameter to thickness 3 to 1.

NUMMULITES SUBATACICUS, Douvillé.

1919. *Nummulites subatacicus*, Douvillé (21a).

1925. *Nummulites subatacicus*, Douvillé, Nuttall (48f).

This species, which is the megalospheric form of *N. atacicus* has been found associated with it at locality (b) above and was observed in the same beds west of Pabuni Chauki. Average diameter 5.5 mm., maximum diameter 6.9 mm., average thickness 3.3 mm., maximum thickness 4.0 mm. Average ratio of diameter to thickness 1.7 to 1. There are 7 whorls in a radius of 2.5 mm., and 8 in a radius of 3 mm. The septal filaments are nearly straight radiate.

NUMMULITES BEAUMONTI, D'Archiac and Haime.

1853. *Nummulites beaumonti*, D'Archiac and Haime. (2b).

1883. *Nummulites beaumonti*, D'Archiac and Harpe. (33b).

1902. *Hantkenia beaumonti*, A. and H. Prever. (51).

Plate I, figs. 4 and 5.

This species was recorded by D'Archiac and Haime from Subathu ("Subathoo") in the Punjab, Cherrapunji ("Cherra Poonji") and near Sylhet ("Silhet") in Assam, but the types from India are no longer preserved. Writing of this species from Egypt in 1877

de la Harpe states (32):—"J'ai pu me convaincre par l'examen d'une riche moisson de *N. Beaumonti* rapportée d'Egypte par M. le professeur Zittel, que cette dernière espèce n'est qu'une variété de la *N. Biarritzensis*. D'après D'Archiac la différence essentielle entre elles consisterait dans la spire plus fine et plus serrée de la *N. Beaumonti*." In 1883 de la Harpe classified *N. beaumonti* as a definite species. Where I have found *N. beaumonti* in the Middle Kirthar (B) I have had no difficulty in distinguishing it from the closely related species *N. atacicus* (= *biarritzensis*), which, as stated above, has a much wider stratigraphical range. I have not found the megalospheric form.

The specimens of *N. beaumonti* that I have examined have slender, nearly straight to slightly curved, radiate septal filaments, which are shown clearly in Plate I, figure 5. In equatorial section (fig. 5) the whorls are seen to be close together, very regular, and the septa practically straight, which distinguishes the species from young specimens of *N. atacicus*. The average diameter of the shell is 6.8 mm, the maximum observed diameter being 7.5 mm. Average thickness 3.6 mm., maximum observed thickness 4.4 mm., average ratio of diameter to thickness 1.9 to 1. There are 13 whorls in a radius of 3 mm.

In one quadrant of the 5th whorl there are 8 septa.

In one quadrant of the 6th whorl there are 11 septa.

In one quadrant of the 7th whorl there are 11-12 septa.

In one quadrant of the 8th whorl there are 13 septa.

In one quadrant of the 9th whorl there are 15 septa.

Occurrence:—Horizon, Middle Kirthar (B). (a) From about 2.500 feet above the contact of the Lower Kirthar with the Ghazij Shales; Dawagar, Dera Ghazi Khan foothills, S. W. Punjab (very common), (b) From the same horizon, Drug, Loralai district, Baluchistan. (c) From 5 miles N. of Dera Bugti, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan. (d) From Taghoa, Loralai district, Baluchistan (common). This species occurs in the Middle Eocene of Egypt and is recorded from Italy, the horizon in this case being uncertain but probably Lutetian.

NUMMULITES STAMINEUS, sp. nov.

Plate I, figs. 1-3.

Test lenticular, border bevelled, average diameter 14.7 mm., largest diameter observed 20.4 mm.,—average thickness 5 mm.,

maximum thickness observed 8.3 mm. Average ratio of diameter to thickness 3 to 1. Septal filaments fine, simple, radiate, gently curved, somewhat irregular. In equatorial section (Plate I, fig. 3) the form is seen to be microspheric, with 9 to 11 whorls in the first 3 mm., 17 to 20 whorls in a radius of 8 mm. Whorl laminæ thick; septa numerous, straight or only slightly curved, set nearly at right angles to the whorl laminæ. Chambers subrectangular in cross-section, their width greater than their length.

In one quadrant of the 4th whorl there are 8—11 septa.

„	„	5	„	„	10—11	„
„	„	6	„	„	11—13	„
„	„	7	„	„	11—15	„
„	„	8	„	„	12—17	„
„	„	9	„	„	13—18	„
„	„	10	„	„	15—19	„
„	„	11	„	„	17—21	„
„	„	12	„	„	17—23	„

This nummulite resembles several known species, but is different from any of the described Eocene forms. *Nummulites* probably belonging to this species from Lakpat (“Lukput”) in Cutch have been referred to *N. atacicus* (= *biarritzensis*) by Carter (10a). Externally some specimens strongly resemble the varieties of *N. atacicus* with fairly straight septal filaments, but internally the whorls are more numerous and the septa set closer together. This species is readily distinguished from *N. kelatensis*, since the fine radiate septal filaments of the latter, as figured by Carter (10b), are more regular and the diameter of the test about half as great as that of *N. stamineus*. A species very closely related is *N. discorbinus*, Schloth. (see Harpe 33a), which is primarily distinguished by being smaller and much more globose.

Occurrence :—Stratigraphical horizon, Middle Kirthar (B). (a) From 1 mile south of Waghapadar (“Waggerpudder”), Cutch. (b) From 2 miles S. W. of Godhathad (Gothahad), Cutch. (c) From the massive Kirthar limestone, 600 feet below the contact with the Nari series; Kalu Kushtak Nala, due N. of Lakhe-ka-kot, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan (common).

(II) Nummulites with reticulate septal filaments of simple mesh and with columns.

NUMMULITES ACUTUS, Sowerby.

- 1837 (1840) *Nummularia acuta*, Sowerby (58a).
1906. *Nummulites douvillei*, Vredenburg (63a) Form B.
1908. *Nummulites vredenburgi*, Prever in Vredenburg (64).
1912. *Nummulites vredenburgi*, Douvillé (19a) cum syn.
1923. *Nummulites vredenburgi* Douvillé (23).

Plate II, figs. 1-4.

Vredenburg described this species as *N. douvillei* from Lakhpat and Noondatur in Cutch, but there are a few important characteristics which he has not made clear. He has only figured adult specimens of the microspheric form, and to judge from his remarks on page 85, he has referred young specimens to *N. scaber*, Lam., which externally they resemble. D'Archiac and Haime (2e) have incorrectly placed *N. acutus* as synonymous with *N. scaber*, the Indian representative of which species is described below.

In Vredenburg's description of the exterior of *N. douvillei* he omitted to state that in the adults a small central mamelon is not uncommonly found; I have found it in about 10 per cent. of the specimens of this species in my collection from Cutch. Also where the exterior layer of shell substance has not been removed by weathering, sinuate radiate ridges may be seen on the outer surface (See Plate II, fig. 1). Strong granulations are found in young forms and are well shown in figures 2 and 3. Of the nummulites referred to *N. acutus* by Sowerby from Lakhpat in Cutch, one of the types (the top, right, figured specimen) is preserved in the British Museum (Natural History); Dr. W. D. Lang kindly arranged to have it photographed (fig. 3). This is clearly a young granular form of the species, the exterior appearance of which is identical with that of another young specimen in my collection (fig. 2), which is better preserved than the type. In the case of the remainder of Sowerby's figured specimens it is doubtful to what species they belong, and it seems that the specimens are lost.

The structure of the septal filaments is characteristic of the species and is identical in young granular forms and in the adult smoother varieties. It is only diagrammatically represented in

Vredenburg's figure 8b. Where the upper layer of shell substance is weathered away the septal filaments are partially exposed and appear exactly like those shown in Douvillé's excellent photographs of specimens from Java (19a). The septal filaments are best seen by making a thin lateral section of the shell immediately above the median chamber layer (as in fig. 4), which shows that they are indistinguishable from those of a specimen figured by Douvillé from Roti Island (23). The specimens from near Godhathad ("Gothahad") are of approximately the same size as those described by Vredenburg, the diameter varying from 17.9 to 9.7 mm., the thickness from 4.9 to 3.3 mm., and for twenty specimens the average ratio of diameter to thickness being 3.7 to 1.

This species, which in India has been recorded from Cutch and Burma (13), is also found in Baluchistan, the localities from which I have examined specimens being as follows:—Stratigraphical horizon, Middle Kirthar (B). (a) From the base of the Kirthar Limestone; 2 miles S. W. of Gothahad (Godhathad), Cutch (common). (b) From 1 mile south and 1½ miles N. of Waghpadar (Waggerpudder), Cutch. (c) From a bed of white limestone, 20 feet in thickness, at about 2,600 feet above the contact of the Lower Kirthar Limestone with the Ghazij Shales, E. of Drug, Northern Baluchistan.

NUMMULITES DJOKDJOKARTÆ, Marti.

1881 *Nummulina djokdjokartæ*, Martin (41).

1906. *Nummulites Douvillei*, Vredenburg (63b). Form A.

1912. *Nummulites djokdjokartæ*, Martin, Douvillé (19b) cum syn.

This species, which is the megalospheric form of *N. acutus*, has been described by Vredenburg from Cutch.

NUMMULITES LÆVIGATUS, (Bruguière, sp.)

1792. *Camerina lævigata*, Bruguière (5).

1853. *Nummulites lævigata*, (Brug.) D'Arch. and Haime (2c).

1902. *Nummulites lævigatus* (Brug.), Douvillé (17).

1905. *Nummulites lævigatus* (Brug.), Lister (40a).

1906. *Nummulites lævigatus* (Brug.), Boussac. (6).

1911. *Numulites lævigatus* (Brug.), Boussac. Form B (7b).

1915. *Nummulites lævigatus* (Brug.) Dainelli (15a)

Plate I, figs. 6-7.

This species is very abundant at Sukkur, Sind. The average diameter of the test of specimens from this locality is 23.2 mm., the maximum diameter observed being 35.4 mm. The average thickness is 4.2 mm., the maximum thickness observed being 5.4 mm. The average ratio of diameter to thickness is 1 to 5.5. The test is flat, lenticular, with a rounded border. Externally the state of preservation is such that it is not possible to make out any of the structure of the septal filaments, the details of which are shown in a lateral section (Plate I, fig. 7), in which case the forms appear to be identical with European representatives of the species.

The septal filaments may be distinguished from other related species from India by their thickness being variable and the shape of the columns irregular. In *N. acutus* the filaments are thicker and less meandriform. In the Indian representatives of a form allied to *N. scaber* the septal filaments are more widely spaced and the columns not infrequently larger than in *N. laevigatus*. In the varieties of *N. obtusus* the filaments are fine, very turbulent, with well rounded columns. These species are also distinguished by other characteristics mentioned below in the description of each. In an equatorial section of *N. laevigatus* there are 17 whorls in a radius of 10 mm.; the structure of the median chamber layer is shown in Plate I, figure 6.

Occurrence:— (a) From the lower part of the Middle Kirthar; west of Pabuni (Chauki, Las Bela State, Baluchistan (rare). (b) From the upper part of the Middle Kirthar; Sukkur, Sind (very abundant).

NUMMULITES LAMARCKI, D'Archiac and Haime.

1853. *Nummulites lamarcki*, A. and H. (2d).

1905. *Nummulites lamarcki*, A. and Lister (40b).

1911. *Nummulites laevigatus*, Brug. Boussac, Form A. (7c).

This species, which is the megalospheric form of *N. laevigatus*, occurs in abundance associated with it. The diameter of the test varies from 5 to 8 mm. and the average thickness is 2.5 mm. The structure of the septal filaments is identical with that of *N. laevigatus*. In equatorial section the diameter of the megalosphere attains 1 mm. and in a radius of 4 mm. there are 5 whorls.

NUMMULITES aff. SCABER, Lamarck.

1804. *Nummulites scabra*, Lamarck (38).

1853. *Nummulites scabra*, Lamarck D'Archiac and Haime (2f).

1863. *Nummulites scaber*, Lam. Schafhautl. (53a).

1918. *Nummulites scabra*, Lam. Favre. Lamarck's types (28).

Plate II, figs. 5-8.

There appears to be no recent description of this species. In 1911 Boussac (7d) classified it as a granular variety of *N. laevigatus*, and since then photographs of Lamarck's original types of *N. scaber* have been published. It is clear from one of these (see (28), fig. 38a) that the structure of the septal filaments is different from that of a typical *N. laevigatus* and is I think sufficiently distinct to warrant distinguishing the form as a separate, although closely related, species. The filaments are less meandriform, their thickness is less variable and the columns are larger and more circular in shape than in a typical *N. laevigatus*. The diameter of the test also is always smaller and the thickness proportionally greater.

In India there is a closely related form differing somewhat from the European species. Externally the test is smooth, though occasionally ill-defined sinuous lines appear on the surface. The columns, which form prominent granules on the surface of the European specimens, in the Indian forms can only be observed by making thin lateral sections (see figs. 6 and 8). In axial section (fig. 5) the whorls are seen to be set close together and the chambers are much smaller than in Lamarck's type (see (28), fig. 38b).

This fossil is found in the upper part of the Middle Kirthar and is very abundant at Sukkur, Sind. At this locality 80 per cent. of the specimens are very globose with broad rounded border. The average diameter is 12.1 mm. and the average thickness 8.0 mm., the average ratio of diameter to thickness being 1.5 to 1. The globose form is very similar in shape to young *N. obtusus*. The remaining 20 per cent. of the specimens are more depressed, lenticular, with a fairly sharp keeled border. The average diameter is 12.9 mm., average thickness 5.9, and average ratio of diameter to thickness 2.2 to 1. In a radius of 5.5 to 6 mm. there are 16 to 18 whorls, the whorls being closer together near the periphery than in the median portion of the shell. The megalospheric form of this species was not found. The

septa as seen in an equatorial section (fig. 7) are slightly curved and set at an angle usually of about 60° to the whorl laminæ.

In one quadrant of the 3rd whorl there are 5 septa.

„	4th	„	6	„
„	5th	„	5-8	„
„	6th	„	5-8	„
„	7th	„	8-9	„
„	8th	„	8-10	„
„	9th	„	8-10	„
„	10th	„	10-12	„

Occurrence:—Horizon, Middle Kirthar (A). (a) From west of Laki village, Sind (common). (b) From Jhand Mahomed, Sukkur, Sind. (c) From Sukkur, Sind (common). (d) From Kubba Shadi Shahid, 4 miles S. E. of Khairpur, Sind.

NUMMULITES OBTUSUS, Sowerby.

1837 (1840) *Nummularia obtusa*, Sowerby (58b).

1848. *Nummulites aturicus*, Joly and Leymerie (35).

1853. *Nummulina obtusa*, Sow., Carter (9a).

1853. *Nummulites obtusa*, Sow., D'Archiac and Haime (2g).

1861. *Nummulites obtusa*, Sow., Carter (10c).

1911. *Nummulites perforatus*, D. de Mont., Boussac. Form B. cum syn. (7e).

1915. *Nummulites obtusus*, Sow., Dainelli (15b).

Plate II, fig. 10. Pl. III, figs. 1-2.

Indian representatives of this species have been well described and figured by Carter, D'Archiac and Haime. Sowerby's type from Cutch is preserved in the British Museum (Natural History) and D'Archiac's specimens in the Musée de Paléontologie, Paris. I have only obtained one specimen of this species from Cutch, where it is rare, but have found it abundantly in parts of Sind and Baluchistan, its stratigraphical range extending from the base of the Lower to the upper part of the Middle Kirthar. The type of the Indian species is very globose with many close-set whorls, this form being common. Much flatter lenticular forms are also found, similar to varieties in Europe. For the typical globose variety the diameter varies from 15 to 20 mm., and the thickness from 6 to 11 mm. In the case of the lenticular varieties, which are found in different localities (c, b and g) from those in which the globose are found

(a, d, e and f), the diameter varies from 12 to 19 mm., and the thickness from 4 to 7 mm. In the more globose forms the border is rounded and in the flatter forms keeled. The meandriiform structure of the septal filaments is fairly constant, the number and size of the columns being variable. In all cases where a lateral section is obtained a short distance above the median chamber layer, it was observed that in the earlier stages of growth columns are always present, whereas in some cases in the more adult stages the columns are only poorly developed (compare Plate III, figs. 1 and 2; in figure 1 the columns reach their maximum development as regards size and number).

The nomenclature of this species has been in a state of considerable confusion. The form was at first called *N. perforatus* by D'Archiac and Haime as well as by de la Harpe, and later by other writers *N. crassus* and *N. aturicus*. Of recent years the name *N. perforatus* has been employed for the megalospheric and *N. obtusus* for the microspheric form.

I have examined specimens of this species from the following localities:—From the upper part of the Middle Kirthar : (a) west of Laki village, Sind ; (b) in the range S. E. of Damach, Thana Bula Khan *taluqa*, Karachi district, Sind (from the first 100 feet of beds below the contact with the Nari series). From the lower part of the Middle Kirthar ; (c) Kalu Kushtak Nala, due north of Lakhe-ka-kot, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan. (1600 feet below the contact with the Nari series) ; (d) Mardan Nala, Mula River, Kalat State, Baluchistan ; (e) west and northeast of Pabuni Chauki, on the flank of the Pab Range, Las Bela State, Baluchistan ; (f) 1½ miles north of Wagha-padar (Waggerpudder), Cutch. From the base of the Lower Kirthar ; (g) Sham plain, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan.

NUMMULITES PERFORATUS, (de Montfort).

1808. *Egeon perforatus*, (de Montfort). (45).

1853. *Nummulites lucasana*, Defr., D'Archiac and Haime (2h).

1911. *Nummulites perforatus*, de Mont., Boussac. Form A. (7f).

1915. *Nummulites perforatus*, de Mont., Dainelli.

Plate II, fig. 9.

This species is the megalospheric form of *N. obtusus*. It is rare in India, the only specimens of this species that I have been able

to examine being four from the shales of the Middle Kirthar (B), N. E. of Pabuni Chauki, Las Bela State, Baluchistan, where they occur associated with *N. obtusus*, which is abundant. The diameter of these specimens varies from 5.6 to 3.2 mm., and the thickness from 3.7 to 1.9 mm. In a radius of $1\frac{1}{2}$ mm. there are 5 whorls. The structure of the septal filaments is well shown in the figured specimen, and is typical of the species as found in Europe.

(III) Nummulites with meandriform septal filaments with columns.

NUMMULITES CARTERI, D'Archiac and Haime.

1853. *Nummulina* sp. Carter. (9b).

1853. *Nummulites carteri*, A. and H. (21).

1861. *Nummulites carteri*, A. and H., Carter (10d).

1906. *Nummulites carteri*, A. and H., Douvillé. R. (25a).

Plate III, figs. 4-5. Plate IV, fig. 1.

This large nummulite has been well described by Carter, and D'Archiac and Haime in naming the species referred to Carter's original figures. The average diameter of the few specimens I have examined is 35 mm. and the thickness 3 to 4 mm. The structure of the septal filaments (see Plate III, fig. 4) shows that the species is related to *N. gizehensis*, but in the former the columns are distinguished by being more elongate and larger, and on the surface by forming granules. The whorls of the median chamber layer of specimens from Sind (Plate III, fig. 5) are more regular than shown in forms ascribed by R. Douvillé to this species from Madagascar. The only locality from which I have specimens of this species is from the upper part of the Middle Kirthar of Sukkur, Sind. I have not found the megaspheric form.

NUMMULITES GIZEHENSIS. (Forks).

1775. *Nautilus* ? *gizensis*, (Forks.) (29).

1853. *Nummulites gizehensis*, Ehrenb., D'Archiac and Haime (21).

1853. *Nummulites lyelli*, A. and H. (2j).

1853. *Nummulites caillaudi*, A. and H. (2k).

1911. *Nummulites gizehensis*. (Forks.), Boussac. Form B. cum syn. (7p).

1915. *Nummulites gizehensis*, (Forks.), Dainelli (15d).

Plate III, figs. 3, 6 and 7.

The Indian forms of this species that I have examined have an average diameter of 19 mm., the maximum diameter observed being 28 mm. The average thickness varies from 3.5 to 4 mm., the maximum thickness observed being 4.5 mm. The synonymy of this very variable species has been given by Boussac. As regards the structure of the septal filaments Dainelli and Boussac have illustrated clearly that of specimens from Europe, and the filaments of forms from India resemble these closely. In an equatorial section (Pl. III, fig. 7) there are 15 to 17 whorls in a radius of 10 mm. The septa are slender and curved, the whorl laminae thick, and the width of the whorls practically the same throughout, after a very rapid growth in the first few whorls. I have not found the megalospheric form of this species. The only locality from which I have specimens of *N. gizehensis* is the upper part of the Middle Kirthar of Sukkur, Sind, where the species is fairly common.

NUMMULITES MACULATUS, sp. nov.

Plate IV, figs. 2-6.

This species of microspheric nummulite resembles *Nummulites gizehensis*. It has a similar thin lenticular shape and numerous narrow whorls. Also the septal filaments are meandritorm with columns which in this species are larger and more circular than in *N. gizehensis* (compare Plate, fig. 6). I have not obtained specimens of the megalospheric form.

Diameter of test from 32.8 to 16.0 mm., thickness from 5.7 to 2.9 mm., average ratio of diameter to thickness 5.8 to 1. The shell, which externally is nearly smooth, is rarely flat, being often curved near the edge, so that it is nearly impossible to obtain a complete thin equatorial section of the chamber layer. Border sharp, thickness varying little from the centre to near the periphery. Septal filaments very meandritorm (fig. 3), about 60 μ in thickness, spaced fairly regularly at a distance of 100 to 250 μ . Columns are situated on the filaments and occasionally between them. At right angles to the septal filaments fine transverse hair-like growths are sometimes found, which are only visible under high magnification as in figure 5.

In equatorial section (fig. 2) there are 26 whorls in a radius of 1.2 mm. The width of the whorls varies little from the centre towards the periphery, the septa being numerous and spaced about .2 to .3 mm. apart. Septa straight to slightly curved. Chambers rhomboidal in shape, their outer border arched and the width usually greater than the length. Whorl laminae thick, in parts thicker than the width of the chambers. In an axial section (fig. 6) it may be observed that the exterior portion of each whorl lamina has a wide area of finely perforate shell substance, very different from that of *N. gizehensis*, as shown by D'Archiac and Haime (2m.).

I have only found this species in Cutch State, the localities where it occurs being:—Horizon, Middle Kirthar, (B). (a) Upper part of Nummulitic Limestone, about 1 mile northeast of Ber Nana, Cutch (common). (b) From 2 miles north of Lakhmirani, Cutch.

Genus, ASSILINA. D'Orbigny.

ASSILINA CANCELLATA, sp. nov.

Plate V, figs. 1-3.

Test flat, lenticular, with a sharp border and thickness nearly uniform from the centre to near the periphery. Average diameter 35 mm., the maximum observed diameter 50 mm. Thickness varies from 3 to 1 mm. The exterior surface in well preserved specimens is smooth and devoid of structure. In certain cases the outer smooth shell lamina has been removed by weathering or, if not, it can be removed artificially with dilute hydrochloric acid so as to lay bare the structure of the septal filaments (as in fig. 1). Their structure is however made most clear by cutting a thin lateral section (see fig. 4), the lamina of shell substance on either flank of the median chamber layer being about 1 mm. in thickness. The septal filaments consist of radiate ridges corresponding with the septa of the median chamber layer and ridges running along the upper surface of the whorl laminae. The septal filaments resemble the ridges found on the exterior surface of *Assilina exponens*, from which species *A. cancellata* is readily distinguished by always having a smooth exterior, by being much larger and flatter and by possessing many more whorls.

In an equatorial section of the median chamber layer (fig. 2) it is observed that the form is microspheric. In a radius of 10 mm.

there are 18 whorls, in a radius of 19 mm. 27 whorls; these increase gradually in width from the centre to the outer margin. The septa are slender and nearly straight, set at right angles to the whorl laminæ. The width of the chambers is greater than their length, the ratio of width to length increasing from the centre to the exterior of the shell.

Occurrence.—Horizon, Middle Kirthar (A). (a) From Rohri, Sind (common). (b) From Kot Deji, Sind. (c) From Jhand Mahomed, Sukkur, Sind. (d) Specimens in the British Museum (Natural History) labelled "*N. complanatus*, Lam, Alore Hills, Upper Sind, No. P. 22439."

ASSILINA SUBCANCELLATA, sp. nov.

Plate V, fig. 4.

This species is the megalospheric form of *A. cancellata*, and occurs associated with it at Rohri, Sind, where it is common. The diameter of the test, which externally is smooth, varies from 7 to 9 mm., and the average thickness is 2.5 mm. The structure of the septal filaments is the same as in *A. cancellata*. In an equatorial section (fig. 3) there are 5 to 6 whorls in a radius of 3.5 mm., and the diameter of the megalosphere attains 1 mm.

ASSILINA EXPONENS, (Sow.).

- 1837. (1840) *Nummularia exponens*, (Sow.) pars. (59 a) Form B.
- 1853. *Assilina* sp., Carter (9c).
- 1853. *Nummulites exponens*, (Sow.), D'Archiac and Haime (2n).
- 1861. *Assilina exponens*, (Sow.), Carter, (10e) and varieties *a* and *b*.
- 1863. *Assilina exponens*, (Sow.), Schafhautl. (53b).
- 1908. *Assilina exponens*, (Sow.), Heim (34a).
- 1915. *Assilina exponens*, (Sow.), Dainelli (15c).

Plate V, figs. 5-6. Plate VI, fig. 1.

In my recent paper on the *Foraminifera* of the Laki series (48a) I have given account of the dimensions, internal structure and other principal characteristics of *A. exponens*, and have shown how in India this species can be distinguished from *A. granulosa*, D'Archiac. The stratigraphical range of *A. granulosa* is restricted to the Laki series, and *A. exponens* ranges from the upper part of the Ghazij Shales (of the Laki series) to the top of the lower part of the Middle Kirthar.

The figured specimens (Pl. V, fig. 5, Plate VI, fig. 1) are from Cutch, from which State Sowerby described the type of the species. The exterior ornamentation is somewhat variable, the specimens from Cutch having the septa and whorl walls protruding on the surface. Others from Baluchistan (as in Plate V, fig. 6) have small granules along the lines where the septa and whorl walls come to the surface. Nearly smooth, small, globose forms, with an average diameter of about 10 mm. and thickness of 3 to 3.5 mm., are found in localities b and f. In an equatorial section of the shell (Plate VI, fig. 1) the regular growth of the spire and the straightness of the septa are characteristic of the species.

Occurrence.—Horizon, Middle Kirthar (B) : (a) 1 mile south of Waghpadar (Waggerpudder), and 3 miles southeast of Sehe, Western Cutch ; (b) Mardan Nala, Mula River, Kalat State, Baluchistan ; (c) northeast and west of Pabuni Chauki, Las Bela State, Baluchistan (abundant) ; (d) Pab Range, west of Shah Bilawal (Bilal) Las Bela State, Baluchistan ; (e) Taghoa, Loralai district, Baluchistan. From the upper part of the Ghazij Shales, 600 feet above the Dunghan Limestone ; (f) Sham plain, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan.

ASSILINA MAMILLATA, (D'Arch).

1837. (1840) *Nummularia exponens*, Sow. pars. (59b). Form A.
1847. *Nummulina mamillata*, D'Arch. (1).
1853. *Nummulites mamillata*, (D'Arch.), D'Archiac, and Haime (2o).
1861. *Assilina obesa*, Carter (10f).
1908. *Assilina mamillata*, (D'Arch.), Heim (34b).
1915. *Assilina mamillata*, (D'Arch.), Dainelli (15f).

Plate VI, fig. 4.

The specific name *A. mamillata* is universally applied to the megalospheric form of *A. exponens* with which it is always found associated. I have described the more important characteristics of the Indian representatives of the species in my recent paper on the Foraminifera of the Laki series (48a). *A. obesa*, Carter, is synonymous with this species.

ASSILINA SPIRA, De Roissy.

1805. *Assilina spira*, de Roissy (52).
1853. *Assilina irregularis*, Carter (9d).
1853. *Assilina spira*, de Roissy, D'Archiac and Haime (2p).
1911. *Assilina spira*, de Roissy, Boussac, pars. Form B. (7h) cum syn.
1915. *Assilina spira*, de Roissy, Dainelli (15g).

Plate VI, figs. 8-9.

Carter described this species as *A. irregularis* from Sind, and Messrs. D'Archiac and Haime have recorded it from Sind, Subathu (Punjab), and Sylhet (Assam), but it is uncertain if any of the latter's figures refer to specimens from India. This well defined and easily recognized species is abundant in the upper part of the Middle Kirthar of the hills south of Rohri, Sind. The average diameter of the shell is 20 to 25 mm., the maximum diameter observed being 30 mm. The average thickness is 3 mm. Externally the whorl walls and septa usually protrude, but smooth forms with no ornamentation are also found. Internally there are ten whorls in a radius of 11 mm. I have not observed the megalospheric form of this species.

ASSILINA PAPILLATA, sp. nov.

Plate VI, figs. 5-7.

Test nearly flat, lenticular, with rounded border. Average diameter 17 mm., maximum diameter observed 19 mm. Average thickness 2 mm., maximum thickness observed 2.4 mm., the thickness being practically the same at the centre as at the periphery. Average ratio of diameter to thickness 8 to 1.

External ornamentation characteristic and quite distinct from that of related species. In young specimens and in the centre of adults there are large and smooth granules where the septa come to the surface. In the outer portion whorl laminae are either slightly sunk or protruding, each septa forming a well marked ridge on the surface. Between the septal ridges are small granules arranged irregularly. Internally the primordial chamber is microspheric. In a radius of 7 mm. there are from 9 to 10 whorls. Septa slender, slightly curved near the exterior border. The width of the whorls increases gradually and somewhat irregularly.

In one quadrant of the 3rd whorl there are 4—6 septa.

„	4th	„	6—7	„
„	5th	„	6—7	„
„	6th	„	7—8	„
„	7th	„	8—9	„
„	8th	„	9—10	„
„	9th	„	10—11	„
„	10th	„	11	„

Occurrence.—Horizon, Middle Kirthar (A.): (a) Sukkur, Sind; (b) Kubba Shadi Shahid, 4 miles southeast of Khairpur, Sind (fairly common); (c) Kort Deji, Sind; (d) Range southeast of Damach, Thana Bula Khan *taluka*, Karachi district, Sind (common); (e) west of Laki village, Sind.

ASSILINA SUBPAPILLATA, sp. nov.

Plate VI, figs. 2-3.

This species is the megalospheric form of *A. papillata* described above, and is always found associated with it. The diameter of the shell varies from 5 to 6 mm. and the average thickness is 2 mm. Exteriorly the granules near the centre are very strong, the central part of the shell being usually depressed. In the outer whorl the septa form ridges on the surface with granules between as in *A. papillata*. In an equatorial section it is seen that the diameter of the megalosphere is about .3 mm. In a radius of 3 mm. there are 6 whorls, which increase gradually in width from the centre to the periphery. The septa are slightly curved, in one quadrant of the second whorl there being 4 septa, in one quadrant of the 3rd whorl 5-6 septa.

Genus, ORBITOIDES. D Orbigny.

Subgenus, DISCOCYCLINA, Gumbel.

DISCOCYCLINA DISPANSA, (Sowerby).

- 1837. (1840). *Lycophyris dispansus*, Sowerby (58c).
- 1853. non *Lycophyris dispansus*, Sowerby, Carter (9e).
- 1861. ? *Orbitoides dispansa*, (Sow.), Carter (10g).
- 1868 to 1888. non *Orbitoides dispansa*, (Sow.), Gumbel, Hantken, Brady, Fritsch, Martin, Jennings. For references see Sherborn (54).
- 1896. non *Orbitoides dispansa*, (Sow.), Verbeek and Fennema cum syn. (62a).
- 1897. *Orbitoides dispansa*, (Sow.), Medlicot and Blanford (44).
- 1900. non *Orbitoides dispansa*, (Sow.), Martin (42).
- 1900. non *Orbitoides (Discocyclina) dispansa* (Sow.), Jones and Chapman (36).
- 1903. non *Orthophragmina dispansa*, (Sow.), Schlumberger (56).
- 1912. non *Orthophragmina dispansa*, (Sow.), Douvillé (19c).
- 1915. non *Orthophragmina dispansa*, (Sow.), Martin (43.)
- 1917. non *Orthophragmina dispansa*, (Sow.), Checchia-Rispoli (12) cum syn.

Plate VII, figs. 1, 2, 3 and 5.

Sowerby originally described this species from Baboa Hill and Waghapadar (Waggerpudder) in Cutch as follows:—“ Lenticular, thick, with very thin, expanded, sharp-edged margin; grains on the surface largest in the centre of the disk. Diameter $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch”. Two important characteristics of the species are made clear by Sowerby’s description and figures. One is that the columns of shell matter, where they protrude on the surface, form granules which are of larger diameter at the centre than near the periphery of the shell. The second is shown in his figure (Plate XXIV, fig. 1, a) illustrating that in an axial section the columns are seen to increase considerably in diameter from the centre to the periphery. These features above are sufficient to distinguish this species from *D. javana* var. *indica*, described below.

Owing to Sowerby’s description not being sufficiently detailed much confusion has arisen around the nomenclature of the species, and many forms have been incorrectly referred to it. The above list includes the more important references to *D. dispansa* from India and the islands of the East Indies. All the forms referred to *D. dispansa* in Europe appear to have been incorrectly placed in this species.

I have been unable to find the type specimens of *D. dispansa* in the British Museum (Natural History), but have collected specimens myself from one of the type localities, namely Waghapadar in Cutch, where *D. dispansa* occurs in the same beds as *D. javana*, var. *indica*, and *D. sowerbyi*, which are described below. The following is a more complete description of the morphology of the shell of *D. dispansa*.

Description.—Test rounded, globular to fairly flat, lenticular, with a wide raised mamelon. Border sharp. Average diameter 8 mm., maximum diameter 10·5 mm. Average thickness 3·5 mm. Exterior granules, the terminations of the vertical columns of shell matter large, irregular in shape and greatest in size at the centre of the shell. A thin lateral section a short distance below the upper surface exhibits well the structure of the columns (fig. 3). It may be seen that some of the columns are circular and others elongate-ovoid to C-shaped, their width (at right angles to the radius) is from ·15 to ·25 mm., their length (parallel to the radius) varies from ·2 to ·4 mm. Surrounding each column there is a rosette of usually 9 to 12 septa.

In an axial section (fig. 5) it may be seen that the median chamber layer is only about .075 mm. in thickness. The columns of shell substance, where they start from the flanks of the median chamber layer, are narrow, and towards the periphery increase considerably in diameter. Occasionally near the outer margin they appear to bifurcate, this being due to their irregular shape, as is seen in horizontal section. An equatorial section of the median chamber layer is known to be of little value in the specific determination of the species of the genus *Discocyclina*. The forms of this species that I have examined were microspheric, the arrangement of the annular whorls of cells being indistinguishable from that found in *D. javana*, var. *indica* described below. There are about 60 whorls in a radius of 3 mm.

Previous Reference to the Species in India.—In 1853 Carter referred to *D. dispansa* a foraminifer, which has been classified in another genus *Spiroclypeus* (see Douvillé 44). In 1861 Carter gave an excellent description of the internal structure of a species of the genus *Discocyclina*, but omitted certain important details from his figures, an omission which renders it uncertain if he were describing *D. dispansa*. For example, in his diagram (Plate XVI, fig. 1a) showing a lateral section of the columnar structure, the columns are much more regular than is typical of the species (compare fig. 3). Also in his diagram (fig. 1 b) the columns in vertical section are much narrower than is found in *D. dispansa* (compare fig. 5). Except for the figures of the species of Blanford and Medlicot all the specimens referred to in the list above are more closely related to *D. javana* than to *D. dispansa*.

Occurrence.—Horizon, Middle Kirthar (B) of the following localities: (a) 1 mile south of Waghapadar (Waggerpudder) Cutch (common); (b) 2 miles Southwest of Godhathad (Gothahad), Cutch; (c) 2 miles west of Lakhmirani, Cutch. From the Middle Kirthar (B), about 2,500 feet above the contact of the Lower Kirthar with the Ghazij Shales, abundant in a thin limestone band: (d) Northeast of Drug, Loralai district, Baluchistan; (e) Taghoa, Loralai district. Baluchistan.

DISCOCYCLINA JAVANA, (Verbeek), var. INDICA, nov.

1870. *Orbitoides dispansa*, Sowerby, Gumbel. pars. (31a).

1892. Var. of *Orbitoides papyracea*, Boubée var. *javana*, Verbeek (61).

1896. *Orbitoides papyracea*, Boubée var. *javana*, Verbeek, Verbeek and Fennema, (62b).

1912. Var. of *Orthophragmina javana*, (Verbeek), Douvillé (19d).

Plate VII, figs. 4, 6, and 7. Plate VIII, fig. 4.

The Indian variety differs from *D. javana* by being smaller and proportionately more globose. The average diameter of the Javan forms is from 20 to 30 mm., and that of the Indian forms 11 mm., the maximum diameter observed being 13.1 mm. The Indian variety is globose, lenticular, with a sharp border. The thickness of the Javan types is from 6 to 3 mm., and that of the Indian forms from 4.7 to 3.4 mm., the average thickness being 4 mm. The Indian variety of this species from Sind has been incorrectly described as *D. dispansa* by Gümbel. In his figures 40 and 41 he illustrates young forms, and in figures 44 and 45 shows the cells of the median chamber layer. His figures 46 and 47 show the structure of the columns in the lateral chamber layer, and these are clearly different from those of *D. dispansa* described above.

A lateral section (Plate VIII, fig. 4) of the columnar chamber layer a short distance below the upper surface shows that the diameter of the columns varies from .1 to .13 mm. The columns are sub-circular in cross section and the distance from the centre of one column to another is from .18 to .23 mm., each column being surrounded by 5 to 6 septa.

In axial section (Plate VII, fig. 7) the columns of shell substance vary little in diameter from the centre to the upper and lower lateral surfaces. Median chamber layer narrow, as in *D. dispansa*. In equatorial section of the median chamber layer (Plate VII, fig. 4) the specimens examined were microspheric. Annular whorls of cells numerous, near the centre 40 in a radius of 2 mm. Cells two or three times as long as wide, there being about 25 cells in 1 mm. of circumference at about 2 mm. from the centre of the shell. Average length of the cells .06 mm. and width .03 mm.

Occurrence.—I have examined specimens of this species which is common in the Middle Kirthar (B) : (a) 1 mile south of Waghapadar (Waggerpudder), 3 miles southwest of Sehe, 2 miles west of Lakhimirani, 1½ miles east of Jhadwan, Western Cutch. From about 2,600 feet above the contact of the Lower Kirthar with the Ghazij Shales ; (b) east of Garmaf hot spring, Buzdar tribal tract, Dera Ghazi Khan district, S. W. Punjab ; (c) from Taghoa, Loralai district, Baluchistan ; (d) from Kalu Kushtak Nala, 5 miles northwest of Dera Bugti, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan. From the shales of the Middle Kirthar ; (e) northeast and west of Pabuni Chauki, Pab Range, Las Bela State, Baluchistan ; (f) Madras Nala, Mula River, Kalat Slate, Baluchistan.

DISCOCYCLINA SOWERBYI, nom. nov.

1820. non *Lenticulites ephippium*, Schlotheim (55).1837. (1840) *Lycophris ephippium*, Sowerby (58d).1853. *Lycophris ephippium*, Sowerby, Carter (9f).1870. non *Orbitoides ephippium*, Schloth. Gumbel (31b).1876. ? *Orbitoides ephippium*, (Sow.), Zittel (68).1922. non *Discocyclina ephippium*, (Schloth.), Douvillé (24a).

Plate VIII, figs. 1, 2 and 3.

Sowerby's original description of this species is as follows:—"Orbicular, depressed, curved so as to resemble a saddle, with gently elevate umbo on each side; margin thick, obtuse, with a narrow waved keel in the middle; grains on the surface small and equal. Diameter $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches, thickness 3 lines." Writing of *Lycophris ephippium* and *L. dispansa* he also states that "these two fossils may possibly be different stages of growth of the same species."

Regarding the shape of the test in adult forms it is saddle-shaped as in the type specimen of Sowerby's figure 15, preserved in the British Museum (Natural History). The young forms are however very variable in shape, some being flat to wavy, subcircular discs, with a thickness of about 4 mm. The largest saddle-shaped form that I have examined is 33 mm. in diameter and 7 mm. in thickness. The thickness is nearly uniform at all points of the test except at a slightly inflated area by the central umbo.

The structure of the columns of shell substance is quite distinct from that of *D. dispansa*, described above, but is similar to that of *D. javana* var. *indica*. The columns are subcircular in cross-section from .1 to .15 mm. in diameter, the distance from centre to centre of neighbouring columns being .2 to .3 mm. Surrounding each column is a rosette of 5 to 7 septa (see figs. 2 and 3). The columns differ from those of *D. ephippium*, Schloth., which, according to Douvillé, attain .1 mm. in diameter and are surrounded by 11 to 13 petals.

In axial section (fig. 1) it is seen that the median chamber layer is narrow and increases in height from the centre to the periphery, where it has a maximum height of .1 mm. Walls of the annular chambers arched exteriorly. Columns of shell substance in the lateral laminæ nearly uniform in thickness from the centre to the outer surface of the shell. Owing to the irregular shape of the test it is not possible to obtain a complete equatorial section of the median

chamber layer. All the specimens of which sections were obtained were microspheric: the chambers were longer than wide, the width varying from .05 to .1 mm. and the average length being .1 mm.

Occurrence.—I have examined specimens of *D. sowerbyi* from the Middle Kirthar (B) of the following localities *a* to *e*.—(*a*) $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles north of Waghapadar (Waggerpudder), 2 miles southwest of Godhathad (Gothahad), $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles east of Jahdwan, and 2 miles west of Lakhimirani, Western Cutch; (*b*) Taghoa, Loralai district, Baluchistan. From about 2,600 feet above the contact of the Lower Kirthar with the Ghazij Shales; (*c*) east of Drug, Loralai district, Baluchistan. From the same stratigraphical horizon as *c*; (*d*) East of Garmaf, Buzdar tribal tract, Dera Ghazi Khan district, S. W. Punjab. From the shales of the Middle Kirthar; (*e*) Mardan Nala, Mula River, Kalat State, Baluchistan. From the Middle Kirthar (*A*); (*f*) Kot Deji, Sind; (*g*) West of Laki village, Sind.

DISCOCYCLINA UNDULATA, sp. nov.

Plate VII, figs. 8, 9. Plate VIII, fig. 5.

Shell flat, lenticular, with a sharp border and a prominent central mamelon. Surface uniformly granular, granules on the marginal flat portion of the shell sometimes arranged concentrically, their size not varying from the centre to the periphery. Diameter of test varies from 8 to 11 mm., thickness from 2.0 to 2.5 mm.

In a lateral section a short distance below the upper surface (fig. 9) the diameter of the columns of shell substance varies from 70 to 100 μ , the average being 87 μ . The distance from centre to centre of neighbouring columns is 270 to 160 μ , the average distance being 210 μ . Each column is surrounded by 6 to 7 septa, which are gently and irregularly curved in their course from column to column. *D. undulata* belongs to the group of *D. archiaci*, Schlumberger (see Douvillé, 24*b*) and is readily distinguished from any of the related forms by the above characteristic wavy arrangement of the septa surrounding the columns.

In axial section (fig. 5) the height of the median chamber layer is from 40 to 50 μ , and the megalospheric primordial chamber elongate-oval in cross-section, the average length 600 μ , and height 250 μ . In equatorial sections all the specimens examined were megalospheric, the primordial chamber being subcircular to oval with a diameter of 770 to 440 μ . Beginning from the border of the pri-

mordial chamber in a radius of 1 mm. there are about 14 whorls of cells, each about .04 mm. in width.

Occurrence:—This species is abundant in the Middle Kirthar (B), east of Garmaf, Buzdar tribal tract, Dera Ghazi Khan district, S. W. Punjab, being found in beds about 2,600 feet above the contact of the Lower Kirthar with the Ghazij Shales. At this locality there are some thin limestones entirely made up of this fossil, which I have not found elsewhere.

Subgenus, ACTINOCYCLINA, Gümbel.

ACTINOCYCLINA ALTICOSTATA, sp. nov.

Plate VIII, figs. 6, 7 and 8.

Shell circular with a central mamelon, surrounded by 8 to 12 fairly wide prominent rays. Diameter of the test varies from 8 to 15 mm. There are 8 or 9 rays starting from the centre, and at a distance of about 3 mm. from the centre other rays appear, which are only seen fully developed in adult individuals. The surface is covered with fine granules.

In an equatorial section (fig. 6) of a megalospheric individual the arrangement of the first chambers is as in that of *Orthophragmina radians*, D'Archiac as figured by Schlumberger (57a). The maximum diameter of the first chamber is 260 μ , and that of the partially circumambient chamber 400 μ . The rectangular chambers become narrower and more elongate from the centre to the periphery of the shell, their length varying from 70 to 90 μ , and their width from 20 to 40 μ . In the lateral laminae of shell substance the diameter of the columns is not over 100 μ , and each is surrounded by 4 to 6 petals.

This species belongs to the group of *A. radians*, D'Archiac (see Douvillé. H. 24c). It is related to *A. lucifera*, Kaufmann (37), which has 10 to 16 narrow rays on the surface and a diameter of 5 to 6 mm. It closely resembles *Orthophragmina* sp. of Schlumberger (57b), which specimen is incomplete. The nearest related species that has been described is *Orthophragmina colcanapi*, Douvillé, R. (25b), from which *A. alticostata* may be distinguished by its smaller diameter and by having fewer rays which do not bifurcate. This fossil is rare in India, and I have only obtained 12 specimens from the Middle Kirthar (B), 2 miles west of Lakhmirani and 1½ miles east of Shadwan, Western Cutch.

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EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

PLATE I.

- FIGS. 1 and 2.—($\times 3$). *Nummulites stamineus*, sp. nov. Kalu Kushtak Nala, 5 miles N. W. of Dera Bugti, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan. Holotype, fig. 2 :—2 miles S. W. of Godhathad (Gothahad), Cutch.
- FIG. 3.—($\times 5$). *N. stamineus*, sp. nov. Equatorial section ; 1 mile S. of Waghapadar (Waggerpudder), Cutch.
- FIGS. 4, and 5.—($\times 5$). *N. beaumonti*, D'Arch. W. of Dawagar, Dera Ghazi Khan foothills, S. W. Punjab. Fig. 5 :—Equatorial section.
- FIGS. 6, and 7.—($\times 5$) *N. laevigatus*, (Brug.) ; Rohri, Sind. Fig. 6 :—Equatorial section. Fig. 7 :—Lateral section.

PLATE II.

- FIGS. 1, 2 and 3 —($\times 3$). *Nummulites acutus*, Sow. Figs. 1, and 2 :—2 miles S. W. of Godhathad (Gothahad), Cutch. Fig. 3 :—Sowerby's original type from Lakhpat (Lukput), Cutch.
- FIG. 4.—($\times 5$). *N. acutus*, Sow. Lateral section ; same locality as fig. 1.
- FIGS. 5, 6, 7 and 8.—($\times 5$). *N. scaber*, Lam. Fig. 5 :—Axial section ; Rohri, Sind. Fig. 6 :—Lateral section ; W. of Laki village, Sind. Fig. 7 :—Lateral section ; Rohri, Sind. Fig. 8 :—Equatorial section ; Rohri, Sind.
- FIG. 9.—($\times 5$). *N. perforatus*, (de Mont.) ; N. E. of Pabuni Chauki, Las Bela State, Baluchistan.
- FIG. 10.—($\times 2$). *N. obtusus*, Sow. Mardan Nala, Mula River, Kalat State, Baluchistan.

PLATE III.

- FIGS. 1 and 2.—($\times 5$). *Nummulites obtusus*, Sow. Lateral sections. Fig. 1 :—Sham plain, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan. Fig. 2 :—Kalu Kushtak Nala, 5 miles N. W. of Dera Bugti, Bugti Hills, Baluchistan.
- FIG. 3.—($\times 2$). *N. gizehensis*, (Forks.) ; Rohri, Sind.
- FIGS. 4 and 5.—($\times 5$). *N. carteri*, D'Arch. and Haime. Sukkur, Sind. Fig. 4 :—Lateral section. Fig. 5 :—Equatorial section.
- FIGS. 6 and 7.—($\times 5$). *N. gizehensis*, (Forks.) Rohri, Sind. Fig. 6 :—Lateral section. Fig. 7 :—Equatorial surface.

PLATE IV.

FIG. 1.—($\times 2$). *N. carteri*, D'Arch. and Haime. Sukkur, Sind.

FIG. 2.—($\times 5$). *N. maculatus*, sp. nov. Equatorial surface; 1 mile N. E. of Ber Nani, Cutch.

FIG. 3.—($\times 2$). *N. maculatus*, sp. nov. Holotype. Same locality as fig. 2.

FIG. 4.—($\times 5$). Do. Lateral section. Same locality.

FIG. 5.—($\times 10$). Do. Axial section. Same locality.

FIG. 6.—($\times 25$). Do. Part of lateral section of fig. 4 magnified.

PLATE V.

FIG. 1.—($\times 2$). *Assilina cancellata*, sp. nov. Rohri, Sind. Holotype.

FIG. 2.—($\times 5$). Do. Equatorial section; same locality.

FIG. 3.—($\times 5$). Do. Lateral section; same locality.

FIG. 4.—($\times 5$). *A. subcancellata*, sp. nov. Equatorial section; same locality.

FIGS. 5 and 6.—($\times 3$). *A. exponens*, (Sow.). Fig. 5:—5.3 miles S. E. of Sehe, Cutch.
Fig. 6;—W. of Pabuni Chauki, Las Bela State, Baluchistan.

PLATE VI.

FIG. 1.—($\times 5$). *Assilina exponens*, (Sow.). 1 mile S. of Waghapadar (Waggerpudder), Cutch. Equatorial section.

FIGS. 2 and 3.—($\times 3$). *A. subpapillata*, sp. nov. Fig. 2:—Holotype. Kubba Shadi Shahid, S.E. of Khairpur, Sind. Fig. 3:—S. E. of Damach, Thana Bula Khan *taluka*, Karachi district, Sind.

FIG. 4.—($\times 2$). *A. mamillata*, (D'Arch.), 3 miles S. E. of Sehe, Cutch.

FIG. 5.—($\times 3$). *A. papillata*, sp. nov. Holotype; same locality as fig. 3.

FIG. 6.—($\times 5$). *A. papillata*, sp. nov. Equatorial Section. Kot Deji, Sind.

FIG. 7.—($\times 3$). *A. papillata*, sp. nov.; same locality as fig. 2.

FIGS. 8 and 9.—($\times 2$). *A. spira*, de Roissy. Rohri, Sind.

PLATE VII.

FIGS. 1 and 2.—($\times 5$). *Discocyclina dispanza*, (Sow.). Fig. 1:—Neotype. 1 mile S. of Waghapadar (Waggerpudder), Cutch.

FIG. 3.—($\times 7.5$). *D. dispanza*, (Sow.). Lateral Section; same locality as fig. 1.

FIG. 4.—($\times 7.5$). *D. javana*, (Verbeek.) var. *indica*, nov. Lateral section; same locality as fig. 1.

FIG. 5.—($\times 7.5$). *D. dispanza*, (Sow.). Axial section; same locality as fig. 2.

FIG. 6.—($\times 5$). *D. javana*, (Verbeek.) var. *indica*, nov.; same locality as fig. 1.

FIG. 7.—($\times 7.5$). Do. Axial section; same locality as fig. 1.

FIG. 8.—($\times 5$). *D. undulata*, sp. nov. Holotype. E. of Garmaf, Dera Ghazi Khan district, S. W. Punjab.

FIG. 9.—($\times 20$). Do. Lateral section; same locality as fig. 8.

PLATE VIII.

- FIG. 1.—($\times 10$). *Discocyclina sowerbyi*, nom. nov. Axial section ; 2 miles S. W. of Godhathad (Gothahad), Cutch.
- FIG. 2.—($\times 10$). Do. View of portion of the exterior.
- FIG. 3.—($\times 10$). Do. Lateral section.
- FIG. 4.—($\times 20$). *D. javana* (Verbeek.) var. *indica*, nov. Equatorial section. Same locality as Pl. VII, fig. 1.
- FIG. 5.—($\times 7.5$). *D. undulata*, sp. nov. Axial section ; same locality as Pl. VII, fig. 8.
- FIG. 6.—($\times 11$). *Actinocyclina alticostata*, sp. nov. Equatorial section ; W. of Lakhimirani, Cutch.
- FIGS. 7 and 8.—($\times 5$). *A. alticostata*, sp. nov. Fig. 8 :—Holotype. Same locality as fig. 6.

RECORDS

OF

THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

Part 2]

1926

August.

SAMPLING OPERATIONS IN THE PENCH VALLEY COALFIELD.

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India.* (With Plate 9.)

Introduction.

WHILST making a general inspection of working methods in the Pench Valley coalfield, Chhindwara District, Central Provinces, in the year 1924, the writer took the opportunity of obtaining a number of samples from the various collieries on the field. As far as time permitted a sample was taken from each working colliery because, up to that time, no precise correlation of the seams in this field had been made. This correlation has been taken in hand by Dr. C. S. Fox in his resurvey of the coalfields of India, and in this connection the sampling results will probably be of some assistance.

The first hint as to the presence of coal in this area is contained in a description of the Trap Formation of the Sagar District by Captain S. Coulthard ¹ in 1827, who in a footnote says "Between Kaisler and the Bhora Nadi there is coal. The Towa Nadi should be followed to its source, or until it is shown from whence it receives the coal fragments found in its bed."

The earliest record of the *in situ* occurrence of coal in this area is that of Lieutenant Sankey and Dr. Jerdon ² in 1852, who report

¹ *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. XVIII, p. 72, (1833).

² *Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc., Lond.*, Vol. X, p. 55, (1853).

that coal crops out on the bank of a stream at the village of Chhota Burkoi in a layer about one foot thick. Mention is also made of coal in this area by the Rev. S. Hislop ¹, but without giving much information as to the coal itself, and the same author discusses the age of the strata.²

The earliest information as to the quality of the coal is given by A. Sopwith,³ who quotes the following average of seven samples,

	Per cent.
Fixed carbon	54·63
Volatile matter	26·21
Ash	19·16

but he gives no information as to where the samples were obtained. In 1866 W. T. Blanford ⁴ made an examination of the field, in which numerous outcrops of coal had by then been discovered, mainly through the perseverance of Major Ashburner, the Deputy Commissioner of Chhindwara at the time. Blanford gives details, such as thickness, dip, etc., of several exposures of coal and he names them after near-by villages. In the case of four of these, fair samples were taken over the best part of the seam by means of small fragments broken out at intervals; the analyses of these were as follows :—

Name.	Thickness of good coal.		Fixed carbon.	Volatile matter.	Ash.
	Ft.	in.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Chhinda (Chenda)	12	3	61	16	23
Barkui (Barkoi) about . . .	6	0	50·3	26	23·7
Butaria (Bhutaria) about . . .	5	10	49·3	26·5	24·2
Sirgora about	4	9	61·6	28	10·4

Chhinda and Sirgora are in the extreme easterly part of the field, in which no development has yet been done. Barkoi and

¹ *Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc., Lond.*, Vol. XI, p. 555, (1855).

² *Journ. Asiat. Soc. Bengal*, Vol. XXIV, p. 347, (1855).

³ *Trans. Manchester Geol. Soc.*, Vol. VII, p. 32, (1867).

⁴ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XV pp. 121, 137 (1882).

Bhutaria are in the centre section and the above results may be compared with the writer's samples from East Barkui and Barkui Nos. 2-3 (see page 18) on a moisture-free basis, bearing in mind that the above figures represent, more or less, outcrop coal.

During the period 1884 to 1886 E. A. Jones ¹ made a complete examination of the coalfields of the Satpura Gondwana Basin, in which is included the Pench Valley Area. Jones gives the following analyses, with a note that they represent outcrop coal :—

Sample.	Moisture.	Volatile matter.	Fixed carbon.	Ash.	Remarks.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	
Takia (Takea) River near Datla. (Top of seam.)	3.42	19.28	29.10	48.20	Does not cake. Ash light grey.
Takia River near Datla. (5 feet below top of seam.)	3.56	19.04	28.62	48.76	Ditto.
Between Datla and Badeo (Badee).	5.34	28.36	48.58	17.72	Does not cake, but sinters slightly. Ash light red.
Panara (Pannara)	2.16	18.92	37.74	41.18	Does not cake, but sinters slightly. Ash red.

At the time of the writer's visit all work at Panara was closed down. A specimen was taken from some old stock heaps and subjected to field coking tests but gave no coke. It was not considered worth while to analyse the specimen.

The result for the coal between Datla and Badeo may be compared with the writer's figures for Badhi Colliery (see page 181) from a sample of the full seam.

Ditmas ² deals mainly with working methods, costs, etc., but on page 131 he gives analyses of seven samples but with no details as

¹ *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XXIV, pp. 1-58.

² *Trans. N. E. Inst. Min. Mech. Eng.*, Vol. LXI, Pt. 3, (1911).

to how the samples were taken, or what thickness they represent or from what locality they were derived.

Sample.	Volatile matter.	Fixed carbon.	Ash.	Evapourating power in lbs. of water.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	
1 . .	31.00	55.30	13.70	11.00
2 . .	28.00	61.60	10.40	11.85
3 . .	26.00	50.30	23.70	..
4 . .	16.00	61.00	23.00	..
5 . .	26.50	49.30	24.20	..
6 . .	27.76	47.31	13.42	..
7 . .	28.45	47.24	11.05	..

W. Randall¹ gives the following as a typical analysis of Pench Valley coal :—

	Per cent.
Moisture	6
Volatile matter	29
Fixed carbon	46
Ash	19

He classifies the coal as of the sub-bituminous non-coking type and says that it cannot be cleaned to yield coking products.

Ball and Simpson² in their "Coalfields of India" quote some previously published analyses but give no fresh information as to quality. The Quinquennial Review of Mineral Production for 1919-23³ also gives no additional information on this point.

Sampling.

The area over which the samples, herein described, were taken stretches from the Kanhan River on the west side to the Pench

¹ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. LVI, Pt. 3, p. 244, (1925).

² *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XLI, p. 95, (1913-1922).

³ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. LVII, (1925).

River east of the Pachmarhi-Chhindwara road. The samples were cut from a site in each pit selected to fulfill the following conditions as nearly as possible :—

Selection of site.

- (i) To give a comparatively freshly cut face.
- (ii) To give a full section of the seam from floor to roof.
- (iii) To give as smooth a face as possible but to avoid a cleavage face.
- (iv) To include in the sample no more than the average number of cleats.
- (v) To avoid any very apparent irregularities in the seam.
- (vi) To avoid proximity to a fault, dyke or other natural feature, likely to affect locally the quality of the coal.

The second of these conditions constitutes a difficulty in the Pench Valley, due to the fact that in most cases the roof and floor of the seam are composed of black shale very similar in appearance to much of the coal. In a good light, on the surface, it is not always easy to distinguish the shale from the coal, and in the indifferent light under ground this difficulty is enhanced. Furthermore, there is no very marked dividing line between the seam and its roof and floor; the coal appears to grade into the shale both above and below. On this account it is usually a matter of opinion, to be decided by inspection, as to what actually constitutes the top and bottom of the seam. For example, in one case a site was selected for taking the sample and, on close examination for the purpose of locating the top of the seam, it was found that the miners had gradually worked up into the roof some 10 to 12 inches, leaving a corresponding thickness of coal on the floor. It is necessary that the third condition should be fulfilled, so that surface irregularities shall not be too great in proportion to the depth of the sample cut, since the harder coal, which tends to stand out, is of poorer quality.

The question of cleats is important, because the cleavage in the coal in parts of this field is quite marked, this being particularly the case in the Junnor Deo Colliery, where perfectly smooth cleavage faces are found running the full length and height of pillars. Such cleavage faces are almost invariably contaminated and iron pyrites occurs on them in more than average quantity; thus such faces must be avoided and for the same reason condition (iv) must be fulfilled.

The coal in the proximity of a fault will not yield an average sample and in the vicinity of trap dykes has in some cases been completely spoilt.

Having selected the site from which to cut the sample the following procedure was carried out. In this connection it may be mentioned that since the sampling operations

Cutting the sample. were carried out in conjunction with other work it was necessary to adopt a method which would yield a satisfactory sample in the minimum of time. At the selected site the working place was roughly cleaned out and where necessary roof and floor coal was cut away to give a full section of the seam. All loose coal was then cleaned back from the face and the latter thoroughly brushed down to remove dust, etc., which would affect the sample, as, on the whole, the fresh dust is the richest part of the coal. Chalk lines were then drawn on the coal face from floor to roof, the lines being from 4 to 6 inches apart, the interval depending on the thickness of the seam. A canvas sheet having been spread on the floor close up to the face the actual cutting was commenced. First an undercut was made by the writer at the extreme base of the seam by means of a steel drill with chisel edge, the drill being about two feet long and used jumper-fashion. This undercut was made the full width of the sample cut and to the desired depth and for about 4 to 6 inches up from the base. The coal so cut was caught on the ground-sheet.

The coal here is very hard and it would have taken practically a whole day to cut one sample by means of the chisel, so the rest of the sample was cut by miners, using the ordinary miner's pick, under the supervision of the writer. With the undercut and the chalk lines it was found that the average miner made quite a satisfactory cut; the only check necessary was to make them take short, sharp strokes with the pick, as their ordinary stroke tends to make the coal fly and at times cuts a much larger piece than is desired. Whilst the cut was being made in this way an ordinary miner's basket was held in front with its edge against the coal in the cut and just below the point at which cutting was proceeding, the basket being tilted up at an angle of about 45°. In this way the miner was able to work his pick from above and the coal was cut outwards into the basket, which prevented it flying; any fine coal sifting through the basket was caught on the canvas ground-sheet. The basket

was emptied from time to time on to the sheet, to lighten it, and finally all the coal which had been cut was transferred to the sheet. The cut was then trimmed up and brushed down to remove all loose bits and dust, the final cut being from 1 to 2 inches in depth. All the coal taken having thus been put on to the ground-sheet, the four corners were gathered together and sheet and coal dumped into a miner's basket and carried back to camp. The bulk sample so obtained varied from about eighteen to twenty-four pounds in weight, according to the thickness of the seam. The total height which had been sampled was carefully measured and the result recorded.

The bulk samples so obtained were reduced in camp, to lessen transportation charges to Calcutta, but particularly to enable the samples to be kept under uniform conditions,

Reduction of sample. this being a simpler matter with small samples.

The bulk sample was weighed and then transferred to a sieve, having half-inch holes, placed over a sampling sheet of American cloth. The oversize was reduced in an iron mortar with hand pestle until the whole sample had passed through the half-inch sieve. The sample was then transferred to another sieve having quarter-inch holes, placed over a second sampling sheet. In this way an oversize was obtained of coal between $\frac{1}{2}$ inch and $\frac{1}{4}$ inch and an undersize of material $\frac{1}{4}$ inch and under. The undersize and oversize were independently coned and quartered, in the usual way, to yield a sample of one half to one quarter of the original sample, depending on the weight of the latter. The oversize was then reduced in the mortar until the whole passed through the $\frac{1}{4}$ inch sieve, mixed with the undersize sample and the whole coned and quartered to yield about half. The material, now all minus $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, was again reduced in the mortar until all passed a 20-mesh screen, this 20-mesh material being coned and quartered to yield a final sample of about one pound. The final sample was put into a specially made tin canister, sealed up and labelled. The canisters were packed into boxes holding twelve tins and despatched to Calcutta.

There are certain inherent difficulties in carrying out these operations in the field, which are absent when working in the laboratory or in a proper sampling room, and these

Sampling difficulties. have to be guarded against as far as possible.

A sampling floor was first prepared by clearing, levelling and beating down the ground for a sufficient space on which to lay the sampling sheets. In spite of this, irregularities remained or developed and these made the process of quartering satisfactorily, somewhat difficult. Wind is also apt to be troublesome as it blows away the fine dust; this would tend to upset the sample, as the fine dust probably contains a higher proportion of the clarain, which is of better quality. This dusting can be reduced by erecting temporary screens round the sampling ground. The ill effect of the dusting is probably largely counterbalanced by the fact that the clarain breaks readily when cutting the sample, falls and is all caught on the ground sheet, whereas if there is any loss from flying pieces (and some slight loss on this account is almost inevitable) the material so lost will contain a higher proportion of durain.

In the laboratory each sample was reduced by coning and quartering to one half, and this sample was ground in a small mechanical rotary mill to pass a 100-mesh screen, the final sample being put into a wide-mouthed glass bottle with ground glass stopper. For the various tests and analyses the material was spread out and small grab samples taken from various points to give an average product.

Laboratory sampling. In all cases rough field coking tests were made with some of the discarded material from the samples. This material had been ground to pass a $\frac{1}{4}$ inch sieve and was dampened and packed into a small earthenware vessel, the opening of which was then plugged with clay. The container was heated in a camp fire for about one hour.

Field coking tests. The object of making these field tests was to ascertain whether the degree of freshness of the coal had any appreciable effect on its coking properties. The results showed that whilst in some cases a poor coke was obtained in the field and not in the laboratory, on the whole if satisfactory coke was obtained in the field then coke was also obtained in the laboratory after the lapse of six or seven months.

Details of the Samples.

The following are the results obtained with the samples taken; the results have been tabulated in Table II, page 201 for ease of comparison. The data are herein given commencing with the most

easterly sample and finishing with the westerly group of samples. The numerals under each name indicate the locality as marked on the accompanying map with a figure in a black circle.

In the determination of calorific value, which was carried out in the Bomb Calorimeter, no allowance has been made for the hydrogen and moisture in the coal, so that the results include their latent heat of steam. It is to be remembered that Calories $\times 1.8 =$ B. T. U's.

There are some new workings situated about half-a-mile N. E. of the village of Rawanwara which have not yet received any name. The workings consist of a vertical shaft which is reported to have cut 7 feet of coal at a depth of 45 feet, but it was impossible to check this. An incline put down near-by first crossed a trap dyke and had just cut the coal but without exposing a full section of the seam. It was impossible to get a true sample, but a basketful of coal was taken and treated in the usual way with the following result:—

Moisture	2.33 per cent.
Volatile matter	8.31 „
Fixed carbon	73.25 „
Ash	16.11 „
Colour of ash	Dark brown.
Coking powers	{ In the laboratory							Non-coking.
	{ In the field							Slight sintering effect.

The coal was unavoidably taken from fairly near the trap dyke above mentioned, which may be responsible for the very unusual results obtained with this coal.

The Rawanwara colliery is situated west of the village of that name along the road from Rawanwara to Dongar Parasia. The main workings had been closed down recently owing to a collapse and new work commenced to the north, on the opposite bank of the stream course; it was impossible to sample this work owing to flooding. To the east of the old main workings extraction was being carried out from an adit driven in the south bank of the stream already referred to. The seam here worked is called the “two-foot-six

Rawanwara Colliery.
(5)

seam " ; this was sampled over a height of 2 feet 4 inches and the analysis was as follows:—

Moisture	5.55 per cent.
Volatile matter	29.84 „
Fixed carbon	49.35 „
Ash	15.26 „
Colour of ash	Very light brown.
Calorific value	6,286 calories.
Coking powers {	In the laboratory Non-coking.
	In the field Gave a very poor soft coke.

The Chikhli colliery is situated against the north side of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line, at the point east of Iklehra (Eklaira) station where the line turns south, the actual colliery being on the east bank of the stream there. The seam here is in two parts with an 8-inch shale band towards the top. Originally the full thickness was taken out but, at the time of sampling, recent work was confined to the bottom or floor coal, which was accordingly sampled separately. Since the later work was confined to the floor coal it was necessary to take the sample from a point at which the full seam had been most recently taken out. The roof coal was sampled over a height of 2 feet 10 inches and the floor coal over 5 feet 9 inches, the results of the analyses being as given below. The average value for the seam as a whole is given by averaging the results in the proportion of two of floor coal to one of roof coal, this being very closely the ratio between the thickness of each part.

	Floor coal.	Roof coal.	Average.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Moisture	7.93	7.22	7.69
Volatile matter	31.20	27.56	29.99
Fixed carbon	42.82	40.72	42.12
Ash	18.05	24.50	20.20
Colour of ash	Reddish brown	Buff	
Calorific value	5650	5105	5468 calories.
Coking powers {	In the laboratory		
	In the field		
	Non-coking	Non-coking	

Bamori Colliery. (9) The Bamori colliery is situated on the south side of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line to the east of Iklehra (Eklaira) station, near the village of Bamori. The colliery has been opened up somewhat recently and the workings are not very extensive. The working seam here was sampled over a height of 5 feet 2 inches, the analysis being as follows :—

Moisture	8.34 per cent.
Volatile matter	30.02 "
Fixed carbon	45.60 "
Ash	16.04 "
Colour of ash	Light brown.
Calorific value	5,697 calories.
Coking power.	{ In the laboratory Non-coking.
	{ In the field Slight coking effect.

The Bhajipani colliery lies just south of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line on the west side of Iklehra (Eklaira) station, at the bend of the Public Works Department road from Parasia through Barkuhi. There are two main inclines here, the more easterly being the older and having opened up a considerable area of ground; it was from this section that the sample was taken. The seam here has a 4-inch shale band near the roof and as this is sorted out by hand it was not included in the sample. The sample was cut from 1 foot 9 inches of roof coal and 5 feet 1 inch of floor coal, a total of 6 feet 10 inches, which was all put together as one sample, the analysis being as follows :—

Moisture	7.54 per cent.
Volatile matter	28.82 "
Fixed carbon	44.96 "
Ash	18.68 "
Colour of ash	Light brown.
Calorific value	5,894 calories.
Coking powers	{ In the laboratory
	{ In the field } Non-coking.

Eklaira Colliery. (11) The Eklaira colliery is situated just east of the village of this name and just south of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line. The colliery is developed from a main incline and a considerable area has been opened up. The seam here has a 3-inch shale band near the roof

and the seam is evidently the same as that worked at Bhajipani except for a slight thinning; this thinning becomes quite marked in the western workings of Eklaira. The sample was taken from 1 foot 3 inches of roof coal and 4 feet 9 inches of floor coal, a total of 6 feet, which was put together as one sample, the analysis being as follows:—

Moisture	6.98 per cent.
Volatile matter	28.47 "
Fixed carbon	45.14 "
Ash	19.41 "
Colour of ash	Buff.
Calorific value	5,668 calories.
Coking powers	{ In the laboratory	Non-coking.
	{ In the field	Slight coking effect.

It appears evident that the Eklaira, Bhajipani, Bamori, Jatchhappar and Newton's Chikhli collieries are all working the same seam. In all cases there is a well-marked shale band towards the top of the seam and a gradual thickening of the seam from west to east, as the following comparative table will show:—

TABLE 1.

	Eklaira.		Bhajipani.		Bamori.	Jatchhappar.		Newton's Chikhli.	
	Ft.	in.	Ft.	in.	Ft. in.	Ft.	in.	Ft.	in.
Coal . .	1	3	1	9	not	2	6	2	10
Shale . .	0	3	0	4	exposed	0	6	0	8
Coal . .	4	9	5	1	5 2	5	6	5	9

The distance from Eklaira to Newton's Chikhli colliery is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles. In addition the southerly extension of the seam is in each case cut off by faulting which brings the Motur Clays into juxtaposition with the coal measures.

The Dongar Chikhli colliery is situated on the south side of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line about three-quarters of a mile east of Chandameta village. The colliery is divided by a fault running north-east, the south-easterly section having been opened up by means

Dongar Chikhli Colliery. (12)

of an incline. The north-westerly section, known as the "Pit side," was the first part opened up and this was done from a vertical shaft. The sample here was taken from the "Pit side" against the barrier which separates the colliery from the old Chandametta goaf. The seam was sampled over a height of 5 feet 7 inches, the analysis being as follows :—

Moisture	9.60 per cent.
Volatile matter	28.94 "
Fixed carbon	44.28 "
Ash	17.18 "
Colour of ash	Buff.
Calorific value	5,544 calories.
Coking powers	{ In the laboratory }							Non-coking.
	{ In the field }							

The Chandametta colliery is situated at the village of that name on the south side of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line. This was one of the first pits opened on this field and one section has been worked out and abandoned. A second section, developed from the Wallace Pit, had nearly reached the end of its productivity. A third section, Chandametta No. 2 incline, had been recently started on the south-west side of the Wallace Pit and this section was sampled. The sample was cut over a height of 6 feet, the full seam, and the analysis was as follows :—

Moisture	7.48 per cent.
Volatile matter	31.24 "
Fixed carbon	44.24 "
Ash	17.04 "
Colour of ash	Brown.
Calorific value	5,688 calories.
Coking powers	{ In the laboratory }							Non-coking.
	{ In the field }							

The Barkui colliery is situated just east and north of the railway station of that name on the Bengal Nagpur Railway narrow-gauge line from Chhindwara; the latest work is just Bery. (6 & 12) south west of this station. This is one of the oldest pits on the field and is at present the largest producer. The colliery has been opened up in three units. Barkui No. 1 at the time was practically exhausted and was not sampled. Barkui

No. 2 has been almost completely developed and extraction of pillars commenced; this section was sampled at a favourable site. Barkui No. 3 was just being started to replace No. 1 and very little work had been done beyond putting down an incline and connecting this with a well. This section was also sampled, but it must be remembered that the sample taken was from very near the bottom of the incline.

The full seam in Barkui No. 2 was sampled over a height of 5 feet 4 inches. There is what is known as the "four-foot seam" overlying the main seam and when pillars are drawn some of the former seam is extracted; this does not enter into the sample, the analysis of which is given below.

The seam in Barkui No. 3 has a 4-inch shale band near the roof and as this is hand-sorted, it was not sampled. The sample was cut from 1 foot 3 inches of roof coal and 4 feet 8 inches of floor coal, a total of 5 feet 11 inches, and the whole analysed as one sample.

	Barkui No. 2.	Barkui No. 3.
Moisture	7.38 per cent.	1.68 per cent.
Volatile matter	29.98 ..	21.98 ..
Fixed carbon	44.52 ..	51.62 ..
Ash	18.12 ..	24.72 ..
Colour of ash	Brown .	Light reddish brown.
Calorific value	5,649 calories.	6,224 calories.
Coking power: { In the laboratory Non-coking .	} Non-coking.	
{ In the field .		
	Shght coking effect	

The East Barkui colliery is situated just south of the Bengal Nagpur Railway narrow-gauge line from Chhindwara, about a mile south-east of Barkuhi station, the stream here flowing along the north side of the main workings. The writer understands that the name of this colliery has been changed since his visit to Bhopal Colliery.

East Barkui Colliery. (7)

The main dip here had just struck trap, probably on a fault line, and a boring was being put down some 40 feet ahead to prove the extension of the coal; this is quite near the trap hills south of the colliery and it remains to be seen whether the coal runs under the trap or not.

The section of the seam here is 2 feet 6 inches of top coal and 5 feet 6 inches of bottom coal with a 6-inch shale band between; for the most part only the floor coal is taken out and this alone was

sampled, over a height of 5 feet 7 inches, the analysis being as follows :—

Moisture	1.70 per cent.
Volatile matter	15.83 „
Fixed carbon	55.94 „
Ash	26.53 „
Colour of ash	Reddish brown.
Calorific value	5,980 calories.
Coking powers { In the laboratory	Non-coking.
{ In the field	

There is only a comparatively narrow strip of coal here between the watercourse, in which the seam practically outcrops, and the trap in the fault, so this may not be very representative material.

The Ghogri East colliery is situated on each side of the stream flowing westwards from the forest boundary about a mile west of

Ghogri East Colliery.
(17)

Ghogri village, the property being in the Dhow Reserved Forest Block No. X, and extending about half-a-mile down the stream. Work has been done here from a large number of inclines, each opening up small areas, most of which are now flooded. There are two sections, but Section A to the west end is shut down. On section B to the east end, some work was being done on the north bank of the stream on a strip of coal between this stream and the boundary of the adjoining property, which was not being worked at the time. The work here was sampled but the sample was unavoidably taken from very near to the outcrop. The full seam was sampled over a height of 5 feet 9 inches, the analysis being as follows :—

Moisture	6.10 per cent.
Volatile matter	28.22 „
Fixed carbon	41.84 „
Ash	23.84 „
Colour of ash	Reddish brown.
Calorific value	5,372 calories.
Coking powers { In the laboratory	Non-coking.
{ In the field	

The Dhow Reserved Forest Block No. X colliery appears to be known only by the name of the reserved forest block in which it is situated. The workings are located on the north and south sides of a spur about a mile due south of Ambara village at about the 2,750

Dhow R. F. Block
No. X Colliery. (18)

contour. The northern section was the one in which most work was being done and a sample was taken there. The workings are not extensive and are traversed by a minor fault. The full seam was sampled over a height of 5 feet 5 inches, the analysis being as follows :—

Moisture	4.90 per cent.
Volatile matter	30.70 „
Fixed carbon	42.68 „
Ash	21.72 „
Colour of ash	Reddish brown.
Calorific value	5,638 calories.
Coking power {	In the laboratory Non-coking.
	In the field Yielding poor soft coke.

The Junnor colliery is situated on the boundary line of the Goradevi Reserved Forest about half-a-mile due west of the village of Jinnaur.

Junnor Deo Colliery.
(18)

The seam in this colliery is dipping at a much steeper angle than in most of the pits on this field and the seam thickens towards the dip, which is about due north. The dip faces are now working 14 feet of coal, all of which is taken out. In most of the workings about 10 feet have been taken out, with a distinct thinning towards the outcrop. This is a pit in which it was very difficult to get a satisfactory site for sampling. Owing to the thickness of the seam, six feet of the roof coal are taken out in first mining and the floor coal is dressed out in the rear, so that none of the dip workings give a full section of the seam, and owing to the changing thickness it was not considered advisable to attempt to take a composite sample. It is in this colliery that the cleavage, already mentioned, is so marked and this fact ruled out many of the pillar faces. The best compromise possible in the circumstances was made and a sample taken over a height of 8 feet 7 inches, from roof shale to floor shale, the analysis being as follows :—

Moisture	3.76 per cent.
Volatile matter	29.80 „
Fixed carbon	39.96 „
Ash	26.48 „
Colour of ash	Brown.
Calorific value	5,226 calories.
Coking powers {	In the laboratory Non-coking.
	In the field

The Badhi colliery is situated on the west bank of the stream to the east of Takia Nala between the villages of Datla and Dongaria.

Badhi Colliery. (16) This colliery is evidently working the same seam as the north-westerly workings of Datla Colliery on the opposite bank of the stream, the Datla Chai Colliery which adjoins Badhi on the west and is divided off by a trap dyke, and Dongaria just across the Takia Nala from Datla Chai. On this account and as time did not permit of samples being taken from all four, a sample was taken from Badhi, which may be taken as representative of all four.

The seam here is thicker than in the eastern part of the field and the dip is somewhat steeper. A sample was taken over a height of 9 feet 8 inches, representing the full section of the seam. This was a case where it was difficult to decide what was actually the floor and the roof. The analysis of the sample was as follows :—

Moisture	4.56 per cent.
Volatile matter	29.84 „
Fixed carbon	42.46 „
Ash	23.14 „
Colour of ash	Yellowish brown.
Calorific value	5,602 calories.
Coking powers { In the laboratory }	Non-coking.
{ In the field }	

The Kolia colliery is situated about half a mile west of Kolia village on the north bank of the stream flowing through the village. There are two inclines here which

Kolia Colliery. (4) at the time were practically under water. The more easterly one was being unwatered and the seam was exposed, just above the water level, in the face of the incline. It was, therefore, impossible to obtain a sample here, but with a view to seeing whether this was an easterly extension of the coking coal, which had previously been found to exist to the west of Kolia, a basketful of coal was cut from the exposed corner of the seam and treated in the usual way with the following result :—

Moisture	4.34 per cent.
Volatile matter	27.16 „
Fixed carbon	49.16 „
Ash	19.34 „
Colour of ash	Light brown.
Calorific value	6,194 calories.
Coking powers { In the laboratory }	Fairly hard coke.
{ In the field }	

It must be remembered that this is a specimen and not a sample, and furthermore that it is outcrop coal, so that it appears probable that a true sample from the dip side would yield results closely comparable with those from the collieries to the west, indicating that this is a continuation of the same seam.

The Puraina Kothideo colliery lies to the north-east of Ghorawari Colliery about a mile due south of the village of Kothideo. There are two interconnected inclines here, Nos. 1 and 2, with some limited underground workings which run about 200 feet to the dip, which is northward, and are then cut off by a fault that throws the strata up, and the seam outcrops on the hillside behind the colliery. Thus there is no really satisfactory site for sampling, and a position roughly midway between the fault and the outcrop was chosen as representative of the coal here. This colliery appears to yield an unusually high percentage of slack which possibly may be due to the disturbance of the faulting. No full section of the seam was exposed and the working seam was sampled over a height of 5 feet 8 inches; this was from the floor upwards and there is said to be 8 feet of roof coal above this. The analysis of this sample was as follows:—

Moisture	1.94 per cent.
Volatile matter	27.58 "
Fixed carbon	51.32 "
Ash	19.16 "
Colour of ash	Brown.
Calorific value	6,371 calories.
Coking powers	{	In the laboratory					} Yields a hard coke.
		In the field					

The general character of the coke is similar to that of Ghorawari and Kanhan, though perhaps not quite so hard.

The Ghorawari colliery is situated approximately one mile south-east of the village of Ghorawari Khurd, on the west side of the main stream running between this village and Puraina. At this colliery there have been eleven inclines put down at intervals along the strike but none of them have extensive workings connected below. Inclines 1 and 2 connect to an isolated set of workings but a connection was being driven to No. 3. Nos. 3 to 7 inclines are all interconnected, Nos. 4 and 7 having been driven from two original quarries, now abandoned. Inclines 8, 9 and 10

form a third independent block of workings. The workings stretch for some 2,500 feet along the strike and for some 250 feet to the dip, so that it is impossible to get a sample of coal from a point at any great distance from the outcrop.

In this case the sample was cut from workings connected with No. 3 incline and over a height of 7 feet 10 inches. The manager states that this is the centre section of the seam, with some 6 feet of coal both in the roof and floor, but no full section of the seam is exposed. He further states that a 10 foot seam and an 8 foot seam occur below, with 10 foot and 15 foot sandstone partings between. The sample of the present working seam gave the following analysis:—

Moisture	2.40 per cent.
Volatile matter	28.66 "
Fixed carbon	50.14 "
Ash	18.80 "
Colour of ash	Brown.
Calorific value	6,348 calori s.
Coking powers { In the laboratory { In the field	Yields a hard coke.

A sample of the coke prepared in the laboratory was analysed with the following result :—

Moisture	0.12 per cent.
Volatile matter	0.84 „
Fixed carbon	71.40 „
Ash	27.64 „
Colour of ash	Brown.

This coal yields quite a satisfactory coke both in the field and in the laboratory. The field coke was of a bright silvery colour, except in the centre, where it was rather dark in colour due to insufficient heating. The coke is hard and somewhat dense. The coal here appears to be particularly liable to spontaneous combustion, and as this may be due, in part at least, to the presence of pyrites in the coal, a specimen of the coke was tested for sulphur and found to contain 0.71 per cent.

Kanhan Colliery. (1) The Kanhan colliery is situated right on the east bank of the Kanhan river, a few hundred yards north-west of the village of Damia.

Work at the time was not in an advanced state. Some preliminary work had been done by quarrying but this had been abandoned and two inclines started on the east bank. The eastern incline had just cut the seam, whilst the western one has been carried forward

some 30 feet to 40 feet, with two strike galleries. The western of these galleries met a fault after progressing about 5 feet and was stopped; the eastern gallery has been driven for about 10 feet.

The sample was cut from the east side of the incline and as near the face as accumulated water allowed. It will be seen therefore that this sample represents coal cut from the vicinity of a fault and at no great distance from the outcrop. The incline shows about 4 feet of soft earthy coal overlying the seam, of which the floor is not exposed. The sample therefore represents the seam as at present extracted and was taken over a height of 5 feet 8 inches, the analysis being as follows:—

Moisture	2.44 per cent.
Volatile matter	30.76 "
Fixed carbon	49.58 "
Ash	17.24 "
Colour of ash	Light brown.
Calorific value	6,515 calories.
Coking powers	{	In the laboratory	} Yields a hard coke.
		In the field	

The coke from this sample is similar to that from the Ghorawari coal (*q.v.*); a piece was analysed with the following result:—

Moisture	0.24 per cent.
Volatile matter	0.48 "
Fixed carbon	73.56 "
Ash	25.72 "
Colour of ash	Dark brown.

Coking Coal.

In view of the importance of coking coals in this country the possible extension of the above described coking coals is of considerable importance and the following information may be of interest.

The samples taken show that coking coal occurs on the east bank of the Kanhan River and at intervals to Kholiya to the east. The next sample east of this is from Badhi, which can be taken to represent Dongaria as well and which is on the whole non-coking coal.

The Panara property lies about one mile north-east of Kolia colliery and at the time all work had been stopped here. A specimen of coal, with which to make the field coking tests, was taken from an old stock-heap. No coke was obtained, which points to the fact that the seam worked here

Panara Colliery.

is not the same as that at Kolia, Ghorawari, etc., though the test was admittedly not made on very satisfactory material. In addition to this, the roof of the seam at Panara is a massive sandstone which forms a waterfall in the stream near by, whereas the strata overlying the seam at the other collieries are soft and friable with mush coal just above the seam. This is all the information available as to the possible eastward extension of the coking coal. Turning now to the westward extension the only evidence is furnished by the Kalichapur

Kalichapur Colliery. Colliery. This colliery is situated on the south-eastern border of the village of this name, there being two villages with the same name of which this is the eastern one.

Work here was only in the prospecting stage, consisting of a vertical shaft 25 feet deep, which at the time was under water and being unwatered. This shaft is said to have cut 9 feet of coal, the bottom being still in coal. The man in charge stated that the dip was to the south, which is the opposite to the normal dip in this area, but the writer was told later that the shaft had been sunk on a fault and this unusual dip may be due to local disturbance. It was impossible to get a sample, but some coal was taken from a stock-heap and subjected to the field coking test, but did not yield a coke. This of course does not prove that coking coal does not exist west of the Kanhan River, but at present its presence can only be taken as not proven.

The data on which to base any estimate of the total quantity of coking coal in this area are extremely meagre and the writer makes the following estimate with all acknowledgment of the slender evidence upon which it is based.

Estimate of Coking Coal Reserves.

The known evidence at present points to the existence of coking coal only between the Kanhan River and a point somewhat east of Kolia, though further investigation may prove a wider extension. At present it cannot be taken as proved that coking coal is continuous over this whole distance, since work between the Ghorawari colliery and Kanhan colliery appears to indicate an area of disturbed ground. Work was being done at the Hillside Colliery, about a mile east of Kanhan colliery, but at the time had not proved anything and no sample could be taken. As a conservative estimate it is proposed to take a strike extension of four miles for the coking coal, of which the eastern half yields a coke of somewhat lower quality, as

regards hardness, than the western half. The evidence as to extension towards the dip is even less satisfactory. Work at Ghorawari has been carried 250 feet towards the dip, at Kanhan only some 40 feet and in neither case has any prospecting been done, by boring, to prove the extension, as far as could be ascertained. At Puraina Kothideo the workings are cut off by a fault at 200 feet and the seam thrown upwards. This is characteristic of the area, which is traversed by a number of east and west faults continually throwing the strata up on the north side; this however appears to be accompanied by a falling-off in the quality of the coal. For the purpose of the estimate the writer proposes to take a possible extension to the dip of 750 feet, all of which would be at a reasonable working depth. As regards the thickness of the seam the information is rather better, but here again it is largely a matter of report, which it was impossible to verify. Thus at Kanhan about 6 feet of coal are exposed and an unknown depth remains in the floor. At Ghorawari the thickness of the seam is given as 20 feet; at Puraina Kalsa it is the same and at Puraina Kothideo it is 13 feet. The writer proposes to take a figure of 10 feet as an estimated thickness on which to base the calculation. Using these figures each of the two mile sections mentioned previously contain about 3,150,000 tons giving a total, of 6,300,000 tons of coking coal.

The Dongaria colliery is situated between the village of that name and the Takia Nala to the east, this village being about two miles west of Jamai. Time did not allow of this

Dongaria Colliery.

colliery being sampled but there is little doubt that the pit is on the same seam as at Badhi, which may be taken as representative. After leaving the neighbourhood of this colliery the writer was asked to make coking tests on Dongaria coal, and for this purpose a cart-load of the coal was delivered at the camp, some twelve miles distant from the colliery. This coal not being a sample, a test on it would have been of little value as to the coking properties of the seam as a whole. but from the Badhi sample it may be taken that the seam is non-coking coal.

A selection was made from the coal, by inspection, and this material was crushed and tested in the usual way. A coke was obtained which was quite hard, of a fairly bright silvery colour and about as dense as the Ghorawari coke. Time did not permit of, nor was the material suitable for, a series of tests to be made to determine the

proportion of the coal that will coke, but the simple experiment carried out serves to show that coking coal can be selected by inspection from this seam and probably from all other collieries in the field. A piece of the coke obtained was analysed and the analysis of the Badhi coal is repeated with this coke analysis for ease of comparison.

	Coke from Dongaria selected coal. Per cent.	Badhi sample coal. Per cent.
Moisture	2.18	4.56
Volatile matter	3.02	29.84
Fixed carbon	70.62	42.46
Ash	24.18	23.14
Colour of ash	Brown.	Yellowish brown

For purposes of comparison the tabulated statement of the analyses (pages 188-9) also shows the proximate analyses reduced to a moisture-free basis. It must however be remembered that all samples were dealt with under almost similar conditions and after reduction were kept under identical conditions, so that it appears that the moisture content of the air-dried samples is a characteristic of the coals, and it will be observed that coals falling in groups according to calorific value also have closely corresponding moisture contents and fall fairly well into geographical groups. The moisture in the coals from the western end of the field is consistently low by comparison with the main central section.

Samples one to four fall into one group on the basis of their analyses and these form a geographical unit at the western end of the field. Sample five represents a seam not worked elsewhere. Samples eight to fourteen form another group both as regards analyses and geographical position. Samples six and seven appear to fall in this group as regards position but the analyses show a marked difference in ash content; this may be due to the location of the sample, which, as explained under the descriptions, was not very satisfactory in either case. Samples fifteen to nineteen represent scattered localities which the writer makes no attempt to correlate.

The localities from which the samples were taken are marked on the accompanying map (Plate 9) with the number of the sample in a circle. The sample letters in the table refer to the identification letter given in the laboratory records of the Geological Survey of India.

TABLE II.

PROXIMATE ANALYSES.													
Reference Number and Letter.	Name of Colliery.	Caloric value (for B. T. U's. $\times 1.80$).	ON AIR DRIED SAMPLE.				ON MOISTURE FREE BASIS				Colour of ash.	Coking properties, L in lab. F in field.	REMARKS.
			Moisture.	Volatile matter.	Fixed carbon.	Ash.	Volatile matter.	Fixed carbon.	Ash.				
1-T	Kanhan . . .	6,515	Per cent. 2.44	Per cent. 30.76	Per cent. 49.56	Per cent. 17.24	Per cent. 31.53	Per cent. 50.80	Per cent. 17.67	Light brown.	L Hard coke . F	} 5' 8" sampled.	
2-U	Purnas Kohideo .	6,371	1.94	27.58	51.32	19.16	28.13	52.34	19.54	Brown	L Do. . F	} Ditto.	
3-N	Ghorawari . . .	6,348	2.40	28.66	50.14	18.80	29.36	51.37	19.26	Do.	L Do. . F	} 7' 10" sampled.	
4-B	Kolsa . . .	6,194	4.34	27.16	49.16	19.34	28.39	51.39	20.22	Light brown.	L Cokes but not strongly F Fairly hard coke.	} Not a sample specimen only.	
5-O	Ravanwar. 2' 6" seam.	6,266	5.55	29.84	49.35	15.26	31.59	52.25	16.16	Very light brown.	L Non-coking F Slight coking effect.	} 2' 4" sampled.	
6-L	Barkul No. 3 . .	6,224	1.68	21.08	51.62	24.72	22.36	52.50	25.04	Light reddish brown.	L Non-coking F	} 5' 4" sampled.	
7-V	East Barkul . .	5,980	1.70	15.83	55.04	26.53	16.10	56.91	26.99	Reddish brown.	L Do. . F	} 5' 7" sampled.	
8-K	Bhaipad . . .	5,894	7.54	28.82	44.96	18.66	31.17	48.63	20.20	Light brown.	L Non-coking F Some coking effect.	} 6' 10" sampled.	
9-Z	Bamori . . .	5,697	8.34	30.02	45.60	16.04	32.75	49.75	17.50	Do.	L Non-coking F Very soft coke.	} 5' 2" sampled.	

10-W	Chandamatta	5,608	7.48	31.24	44.24	17.04	33.77	47.82	18.42	Brown	L Non-coking F	} 6' sampled.
11-B	Ethaina	5,608	6.98	28.47	45.14	19.41	30.51	48.53	20.87	Buff	L Non-coking F Very soft coke.	} Do.
12-F	Barkul No. 2.	5,649	7.38	29.98	44.52	18.12	32.37	48.07	19.56	Brown	L Do. F	} 5' 4" sampled.
13-P	Dongar Chikthi	5,544	9.60	28.04	44.28	17.18	32.14	49.18	19.08	Buff	L Non-coking F	} 5' 7" sampled.
14	Newton's Average.	5,468	7.49	29.99	42.12	20.20	32.49	45.63	21.88	} 8' 7" sampled.
14-A	Newton's Floor coal.	5,650	7.98	31.20	42.82	18.05	33.89	46.51	19.60	Reddish brown.	L Non-coking F	} 5' 9" sampled.
14b-O	Newton's Roof coal.	5,106	7.32	27.56	40.72	24.50	29.70	43.89	26.41	Buff	L Do. F	} 3' 10" sampled.
15-Z	Dhau R. F. Block No. X.	5,638	4.90	30.70	42.68	21.72	32.18	44.78	22.84	R e d- d i s h brown.	L Non-coking F Soft coke	} 5' 5" sampled.
16-M	Badhi	5,602	4.56	29.84	42.46	23.14	31.26	44.49	24.25	Yellow- i s h brown.	L Non-coking F	} 9' 8" sampled.
17-G	Gogri	5,872	6.10	28.22	41.84	23.84	30.05	44.56	25.39	R e d- d i s h brown.	L Non-coking F Soft coke	} 5' 5" sampled.
18-J	Jumar Deo	5,220	3.76	29.80	39.06	26.48	30.86	41.52	27.51	Brown	L Non-coking F	} 8' 7" sampled.
19-Y	R. N. R. of Rawarwar.	..	2.33	9.81	78.25	16.11	9.72	75.00	16.49	D a r k brown.	L Non-coking F Slight coke- flag effect.	} Not a sam- ple, a coal- mon only.

In conclusion the writer has to express his appreciation of the great assistance given to him by all colliery owners, or their representatives and managers, in the taking of the samples, and that of Mahadeo Ram, Laboratory Assistant, Geological Survey of India in the making of the various tests and analyses.

ON THE COMPOSITION OF SOME INDIAN GARNETS. BY
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Superintendent, Geological Survey of India. (With Plate
10.)

I. Introduction.

In 1912 it was arranged that an investigation into the chemical composition of Indian garnets should be undertaken by Mr. S. N. Godbole, M.Sc., who has since become Assistant Professor of Chemistry in the Victoria College of Science, Nagpur. I accordingly selected for him from our collection 9 specimens of Indian garnet, illustrating various modes of occurrence of this group of minerals in India. The original intention was that, on completion of the analysis of this first batch of material, a further series of specimens should be sent illustrating other modes of occurrence: pressure of work has, however, prevented Mr. Godbole from continuing his analyses.

In each analysis the constituents usual in garnet were determined, but some of the analyses totalled to a little over 96 and 97 per cent. only. It was then suggested that perhaps alkalis were present; but after a careful search Mr. Godbole failed to detect their presence, as also the presence of titania. As Mr. Godbole's duties preclude any further work on this material, these analyses have to be utilised as they stand, and, although four of them total to too small a figure, indicating either that there is some other constituent present, or that some constituent has been underestimated, yet Mr. Beckett, Principal of the College, who supervised the work, accepts the responsibility for its being careful and conscientious work, the results of which can be safely utilised. Mr. Godbole has kindly consented to my discussing his analyses from the geological and mineralogical point of view.

II. Description of Material used.

The specimens sent for analysis were examined by me before despatch and their descriptions recorded. Thin sections have been cut from duplicate material and examined under the microscope.

These descriptions with the data elicited under the microscope follow :—

J. 371. Orange-red or mahogany-red garnet from the garnet mines, Sarwar, Kishengarh State, Rajputana.

Under the microscope this garnet is practically colourless, and shows numerous inclusions of three sorts. The most abundant are minute needles arranged in several parallel sets, oriented presumably with some reference to the crystallographic habit of the mineral ; but as the specimen sectioned showed no crystal faces this relationship is not obvious. The refractive index of these needles is greater than that of garnet ; the polarisation tints range up to blue of the first order, the extinction is oblique, ranging from 15° up to 39° with reference to the long axis of the needles, the ray nearest the vertical axis being sometimes that of lesser and sometimes that of greater elasticity. The colour of these needles is very pale yellowish. The second kind of inclusion is in broader needles, polarising in first order grey. There are also a few grains of a mineral of lower refractive index than the garnet and very low birefringence and probably apatite. The above list of inclusions sounds formidable, but the total amount is exceedingly small.

I. 16. Three cut garnets from Jaipur, Rajputana. Light crimson colour.

A small cut gem was sacrificed for microscopical examination. As the slice is rather thick, the garnet is of very pale pink tint and looks almost perfectly pure. There are no cracks or signs of alteration : but there are an exceedingly few very minute doubly refracting grains.

F. 367. "Spessartite", dodecahedron from mica-schist, Kulu. Attached mica scratched off.

One rhombohedral dodecahedron was sacrificed for the preparation of a thin slice. In this the garnet is very pale pink and shows a small quantity of included black and brown oxides which would be impossible to eliminate. In addition there are a few very minute pleochroic grains of negative elongation and absorption at right angles to length. They may be brown tourmaline with the following pleochroism. O nearly colorless, E brownish ; $O > E$;

13/546. From a pegmatite dyke, Biradavole, Nellore district, Madras. General colour mahogany : orange-red to fiery red on thin edges. The garnet was trapezohedral modified by the rhomb-dodecahedron.

In thin section under the microscope this garnet is pale pink with perhaps an orange tinge. Under the low power the garnet appears pure except for a very few tiny inclusions of quartz (with colorless mica in one case). But under the high powers the garnet is seen to contain numerous minute needles arranged in thin parallel sets mainly at angles of 60° . These needles are usually so thin as to appear

opaque, but where slightly thicker they are seen to be of positive elongation and straight extinction—properties possessed by both sillimanite and rutile. As rutile is coloured and of higher refractive index than garnet, whilst sillimanite is colourless and of lower refractive index than garnet, it ought to be possible to refer these needles to one or other of these two, but I find it difficult to decide these points on such thin needles.

17/63. Trapezohedral spessartite from pegmatite cutting Gondite Series, Bichua, Chhindwara district.

Under the microscope this garnet is very pale yellowish, with perhaps an orange tinge. It contains a very little quartz and a colorless substance, mainly occupying minute cracks, which is possibly a micaceous mineral. There is also a little secondary iron-ore.

18/582. Garnet-rock from Nautan-Barampur, Ganjam district, Madras. Considerably blackened in patches: in others of light buff or crimson colour. Some pale blue apatite grains. Thought to be mangan-grandite. From Kodurite Series.

Under the microscope this is seen to be a granular rock composed mainly of practically colourless garnet (? a yellowish tinge), with a moderate amount of scattered quartz. There is much secondary iron oxide along the boundaries of the garnet grains with some black oxide as well, presumed to be an oxide of manganese.

18/912. Piece of a large trapezohedral crystal from Satak, Nagpur district, C. P. Dark yellow-brown to yellowish liver-coloured, probably partly altered: orange when fractured. From Gondite Series.

Under the microscope this garnet is light sulphur-yellow with numerous scattered tiny included grains of red hematite and of some black oxide, presumably manganese oxide. The distribution of these inclusions causes the crystal to be zoned parallel to the crystal faces. Some shells are nearly free from inclusions. These inclusions could not however be excluded from the material taken for analysis. In addition there is a large patch of microcline and one of black ore, both easily rejected.

18/482 (233). Spandite-rock from Kodur, Vizagapatam district, Madras. Chocolate-brown, due to secondary oxidation along boundaries. Fiery red where transparent. From the Kodurite Series.

Under the microscope this is seen to be a mono-mineralic granular aggregate of orange-yellow garnet, with black oxide along the boundaries of the grains, forming a black network and to a certain extent along cracks extending into the interior. In the medial zone of the black bands of the network there is often a thin streak of a light greyish substance. The interiors of the grains are perfectly fresh, but

traversed by a network of minute cracks. The material picked from this could not have been completely pure.

M. 1538. "Calderite" from Hazaribagh district, Chota Nagpur. Massive, brownish black to orange-brown (resin-coloured) where thin. From the metamorphic crystalline complex of Hazaribagh.

Under the microscope this rock is composed almost entirely of light brownish garnet, evidently in large crystal units, but much cracked. It is very fresh, however, except for very thin brownish fibres along some of the cracks: it contains a few light green pyroxene grains of quite large size.

In forwarding this material to Nagpur directions were given concerning the picking of the material to be actually used for analysis.

III. Methods and Results of Analysis.

In each case the material was, if necessary, picked, and in the case of 18/182 the garnet was treated with cold dilute hydrochloric acid to remove coatings and films of black oxide of manganese.

The specific gravity was in each case determined on the material used for analysis, the method of direct weighing in air and water being used for the larger material, and the specific gravity bottle for the smaller-sized material such as 18/182.

The analytical procedure followed by Mr. Godbole was as follows:—

After estimating the silica, iron and aluminium were separated from manganese, calcium, and magnesium by the usual methods. The manganese was then estimated as sulphide, the calcium precipitated as oxalate and the magnesium as phosphate. Iron and aluminium were estimated together as oxides, and the iron estimated volumetrically, so that the amount of aluminium was determined by difference.

Ferrous iron was separately estimated. Equal quantities of the mineral and calcium fluoride were treated with hydrochloric acid on a water bath in an atmosphere of inert gas (*i.e.* out of contact with air). After the reaction ferrous iron was estimated volumetrically.

Owing to the deficit in the totals of some of the analyses, attempts were made to estimate alkalis if present. But the results showed absence of alkalis.

The results of analysis are collected in the following table:—

TABLE NO. I.—*Results of analysis of 9 specimens of garnet.*

Specimen No.	Sp.Gr.	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Total.
J-371 .	3.64*	39.01	22.25	7.87	17.56	0.95	10.64	2.42	100.70
I-10 .	4.24	39.47	22.31	2.84	29.97	0.31	3.32	1.85	100.07
F-367 .	4.09†	37.66	29.22	..	21.69	4.63	2.76	3.67	99.63
13 516 .	4.15	34.81	22.87	14.77	9.38	11.67	..	2.90	96.20
17/63 .	3.95‡	36.02	19.79	5.93	5.98	26.06	1.85	5.06	100.19
14/682 .	3.54‡	38.61	17.91	8.75	3.02	26.51	2.18	1.95	98.93
18/912 .	4.18	34.73	22.46	4.51	1.63	35.30	..	0.97	90.60
18 482(233).	3.72	32.76	7.92	18.54	1.23	11.77	0.69	24.43	97.34
M 1538 .	3.73	37.43	8.39	19.86	3.85	2.89	0.81	24.40	97.63

* This result is obviously too low and is not used further. A duplicate piece of J-371 of mahogany brown colour gave $G=3.05$ in the Geological Survey of India laboratory, and another of purplish rose colour gave $G=3.95$. The former figure is used in later tables.

† Other crystals of this number gave in the Geological Survey of India laboratory results ranging from 4.11 to 4.16 (Min. G. S. Surv. Ind., XXXVII, p. 175).

‡ Another crystal was found by me to have a specific gravity of 4.02 (*L.c.*).

§ Obviously too low: not used further.

IV. Interpretation of the Results.

In Table No. 2 these 9 analyses have been rearranged in terms of their constituent garnet molecules, amongst which it has, in one of the analyses, been necessary to assume the existence of the molecule $3\text{FeO}.\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$. It will be seen that the total percentage of garnet molecules ranges from as high as 98.48 per cent to as low as 79.97 per cent.

The excess over the garnet molecules has been shown as sillimanite, quartz, surplus alumina and ferric oxide and, in one analysis, as lime, whilst in most cases there is a surplus of oxygen, due probably, at least in part, to the difficulty of estimating exactly the amounts of FeO and Fe_2O_3 in an insoluble silicate, but possibly in some cases to slight oxidation of the garnet. To ascertain if any of these impurities were microscopically visible, I had thin sections cut of each of these garnets (not, of course, of the pieces actually analysed), and the results of the examination of these have been given in pages 192 to 194.

A comparison of the impurities shown in table No. 2 with those noticed under the microscope is of interest. Sillimanite is shown in three analyses. I.16 is, however, too pure to contain nearly 8 per cent. of impurities, unless in solid solution, which seems improbable. F.367 contains no visible sillimanite and only a very small quantity of other inclusions. The specimen analysed must have been much less pure than that examined by me. 13/546, which should contain over 7 per cent. of sillimanite, does in fact show, under the microscope, numerous minute needles that may be either sillimanite or rutile, and also a little quartz. But the amount of inclusions cannot be nearly as high as 7 per cent.¹ Quartz in appreciable quantity should be shown by 18/582 and M.1538. Such proved to be the case. Surplus ferric oxide should be, according to the analyses, shown by four of the garnets. Of these J.371 does not show ferric oxide, but shows other inclusions.

¹ That sillimanite does actually occur inside garnet I proved to my satisfaction by examining the garnets in two thin slices of khondalite, one being Dr. T. L. Walker's original khondalite from Kalahandi (4239-15/181) of which the garnet is represented in the table on p. 200 and the other a slice of this rock (5339) from Nantan-Barampur in Ganjam, collected by myself.

TABLE No. 2

No.	G.	Pyrope.	Almandite.	Spessartite.	Grossularite.	Andradite.	3FeO. Fe ₂ O ₃ . 3SiO ₂ .	Total garnet.	SURPLUS.					TOTAL.
									Sillimanite.	Quartz.	Al ₂ O ₃ .	Fe ₂ O ₃ .	O.	
J.371 .	3.98	35.55	54.20	2.23	6.50	98.48	0.26	1.30	0.66	100.70
L.16 .	4.24	11.08	75.16	0.74	4.97	91.95	4.54	3.28	0.28	100.05
F.367 .	4.09	9.22	50.14	10.77	9.84	79.97	19.39	0.25	99.61
13/546.	4.15	..	52.24	27.20	7.81	87.25	7.51	..	0.10	..	1.48	96.36
17/63 .	3.95	4.50	17.60	60.74	11.29	2.60	..	96.73	3.28	0.18	100.15
18/582.	..	7.28	16.38	61.80	..	5.91	3.27	94.64	..	3.68	0.59	98.88
18/912.	4.13	..	10.04	82.24	2.62	94.90	2.88	1.46	0.30	99.54
233 .	3.72	2.31	2.85	27.45	4.87	52.65	..	90.13	1.95	5.24	97.64
M.1538	3.73	2.79	13.43	6.75	15.66	56.27	..	94.90	..	2.55	0.22	97.32

17/63 does show a little secondary iron-ore: 18/912 shows numerous scales of red hematite and grains of a black ore (? manganese-ore) in certain shells: whilst 18/482 shows much black oxide in the unpicked mineral. There are no visible impurities nor inclusions corresponding to the surplus alumina in 18/912 or the surplus lime in 18/482.

These discrepancies are possibly in part due to material being held in solid solution in garnet, and, in three analyses, probably to the fact that there is a deficit in the analysis.

The tendency of garnet to enclose other minerals is exemplified by the descriptions on pages 192-3, and is well-known¹; nevertheless, in order to ascertain whether Mr. Godbole's results departed from the theoretical composition of garnet to a greater extent than usual, I selected from Dana's "System of Mineralogy" one analysis of each of the five chief species of garnet (omitting uvarovite), and recalculated them also into terms of garnet molecules. The analyses selected were as follows (omitting water, alkalis, etc.):—

TABLE NO. 3.

—	G.	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	FeO.	MnO.	MgO	CaO	TOTAL.
Grossularite, No 9, Vesuvius.	3.572	39.83	20.16	1.03	1.21	0.46	0.97	35.42	99.08
Pyrope, No. 6, Elle Ness.	4.124	40.92	22.45	5.46	8.11	0.46	17.85	5.04	100.29
Almandite, No. 4, Zillerthal.	4.04	39.12	21.08	6.00	27.28	0.80	..	5.76	100.04
Spessartite, No. 14, Glen Skiag.	4.125	35.99	16.22	8.64	23.27	15.24	0.47	0.40	100.23
Andradite, No 10, East Rock.	3.740	35.09	tr.	29.15	2.49	0.36	0.24	32.80	100.13

On recalculation into garnet molecules these analyses can be rearranged as follows:—

¹ Sir T. H. Holland's paper "On the Aqueous Inclusions in Indian Garnets," *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXI, pp. 16-19, (1896), is of interest in this connection.

TABLE No. 4.

—	Pyrope.	Almandite.	Spessartite.	Grossularite.	Andradite.	3FeO. Fe ₂ O ₃ 3SiO ₂ .	3MnO. Fe ₂ O ₃ 3SiO ₂ .	Total Garnet.	SURPLUS.					
									Sillimanite.	Quartz.	Fe ₂ O ₃ .	CaO.	MgO.	O.
Grossularite . .	3.24	2.80	1.08	81.92	3.25	92.25	..	2.92	..	3.85
Pyrope . .	59.30	23.47	1.08	10.79	3.11	97.75	2.19	0.23
Almandite	75.56	1.89	15.48	92.93	2.75	3.79	0.90
Spessartite . .	1.58	41.60	35.49	..	1.22	19.67	..	99.57	..	0.40	0.26
Andradite	86.05	6.41	0.93	93.39	..	2.07	..	4.41	0.24	..

In two of the garnets the molecule $3\text{FeO} \cdot \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{SiO}_2$ again appears, as well as the molecule $3\text{MnO} \cdot \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{SiO}_2$ in one case. The departures of these analyses from the theoretical composition of garnet are comparable with those of Mr. Godbole's analyses, and apparently such departures must be regarded as normal for garnet.

V. Other Analyses of Indian Garnets.

Besides the 9 analyses of garnets by Mr. Godbole the only other analyses of Indian garnets of which I am aware are two of "calderite" by Piddington and Tween,¹ and the analyses of Indian manganese-garnets by Messrs. T. R. Blyth, J. Coggin Brown, and the Imperial Institute, given in my memoir on the manganese ore deposits of India.² In addition the composition of the garnet in khondalite can be calculated from the analysis of this rock by Dr. T. L. Walker, assuming the iron to be in the ferrous condition.³ These 8 analyses are as follows :—

TABLE NO. 5. ✓

—	G.	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	FeO.	MnO	MgO.	CaO.	BaO.	TOTAL.
1030—(18/871)—Chargan.	..	34.71	8.05	8.38	n.d.	38.83	5.40	4.97	tr.	100.34
16/984—Wagera .	4.24	37.73	21.26	..	9.94	24.48	3.48	3.11	..	100.00 ⁴
A. 219 (18/378)—Garbhani.	4.02	35.24	6.48	23.90	n.d.	16.87	2.04	15.29	0.18	99.41
A. 238 (18/392)—Kotaharra.	..	37.57	18.98	3.47	7.45	16.50	0.23	15.80	..	100.00 ⁴
A. 131 (18/557)—Bolarail.	3.76	36.18	14.22	11.41	2.16	2.68	0.65	30.70	..	100.00 ⁴
Hazribagh . .	3.735	37.44	6.27	19.88	5.24	tr.	1.40	30.93	..	100.86
Katksandi, Hazaribagh.	3.65	46.35	0.35	30.18	..	21.00	..	1.00	..	100.00 ⁴
15/141—Kalsandi .	..	37.74	21.24	..	34.06	..	4.01	2.95	..	100.00 ⁴

On calculation into terms of garnet molecules these analyses can be rearranged as follows :—

¹ See 'A Manual of the Geology of India,' Pt. IV, 'Mineralogy' by F. E. Mallet, pp. 89-90, (1887); and my discussion of calderite in *Mem., G. ol. Surv. Ind., XX XVII*, pp. 182-186.

² *Mem., G. ol. Surv. Ind., XXXVII*, pp. 167-168, (1900).

³ *Mem., G. ol. Surv. Ind., XXXIII*, Part III, p. 9, (1902).

⁴ Calculated from rock analysis.

TABLE No. 6.

No.	Pyrope.	Alman- dite.	Spear- dite.	Grossu- larite.	Andra- dite.	FeO. Fe ₂ O ₃ . 3SiO ₂ .	3MnO. Fe ₂ O ₃ . 3SiO ₂ .	3MnO. Mn ₂ O ₃ . 3SiO ₂ .	3BaO. Fe ₂ O ₃ . 3SiO ₂ .	Total Garnet.	SURPLUS.		
											O.	Fe ₂ O ₃ .	SiO ₂ .
1000—Chargoon . . .	18.04	..	10.98	..	15.38	..	12.30	23.25	..	96.05	0.97	5.37 (MnO)	..
16/964—Wagora . . .	11.65	22.92	57.08	8.35	100.00
A.219—Garbhani . . .	6.79	..	23.13	..	46.08	5.40	16.79	..	0.48	98.67	0.23	0.61 (MnO)	..
A.233—Kotakarra . . .	0.77	17.24	38.50	32.43	11.06	100.00
A.234—Boirani . . .	2.18	4.99	6.25	50.13	31.45	100.00
Hazaribagh . . .	4.69	4.59	..	18.23	73.12	100.69	0.86	..	0.31
Kathmandu	1.69	..	3.00	19.50	52.76	70.95	6.84	..	21.07
15/181 Katabandi . . .	13.31	78.80	..	7.39	100.00

In two cases again the molecule $3\text{FeO}.\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$, appears and in three cases the molecule $3\text{MnO}.\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$, and in one case the molecule $3\text{MnO}.\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$.

VI. Molecular Composition of Indian Garnets.

These eight additional analyses have been assembled in one table (No. 7) with Mr. Godbole's results, the order adopted being that of composition. Although this table contains 17 analyses it is not as comprehensive in the garnets represented as would have been the case had Mr. Godbole been able to deal with the second set of garnets as originally proposed. In particular it is defective in not containing analyses of the garnets of the Indian marbles and calciphyres, usually essonite or andradite, nor of the pink garnets of the garnet-amphibolites.

On scanning this table it will be observed that the *pyrope molecule* is present in quantity (>20%) only in one garnet, which is one of the precious garnets of Rajputana. The *almandite molecule* is present to the extent of over 20% in the first 6 garnets, of which the first 4 are derived from the crystalline schists—mica-schists and khondalite. The *spessartite molecule* occurs to the extent of over 20% in 8 garnets, of which one is from a pegmatite in the Nellore district, 6 are from the Gondite and Kodurite Series of the Central Provinces and Madras respectively, and one is from a pegmatite cutting the Gondite Series.

The *grossularite molecule* is found in quantity only in 2 garnets, both of which come from kodurites, one from Vizagapatam and one from Ganjam. The *andradite molecule* is found in quantity in five garnets, three of which come from the Kodurite Series of Madras and two from the massive garnet rocks of Hazaribagh.

In addition there are shown by these analyses to be three other molecules that must be considered, namely, $3\text{FeO}.\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$, $3\text{MnO}.\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$ and $3\text{MnO}.\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3.2\text{SiO}_2$. The first of these occurs in quantity in the calderite of Hazaribagh and in small amount in two manganese-garnets from the Kodurite Series of Ganjam and Vizagapatam. It also occurs to the extent of nearly 20% in the "spessartite" garnet of Glen Skiag in Scotland. We must, it appears, accept this molecule as existing in some garnets. It requires, therefore, a name, and as the Indian locality Katkam-sandi is unsuitable this garnet may perhaps be called *skiagite* after the Scottish locality.

TABLE No. 7.

No. of specimens.	Locality.	Rock in which found.	G.	Pyrope (Py).	Almandite (Al).	Spessartite (Sp)	Grossularite (Gr.)	Andradite (An).	3FeO Fe ₂ O ₃ 3SiO ₂ (Sk).	3MnO Fe ₂ O ₃ 3SiO ₂ (Ca).	3MnO Mn ₂ O ₃ 3SiO ₂ (B).	Name adopted.	Colour.
J 371	Sarwar, Kishen-garh.	Schist.	3.98	36.10	55.04	2.26	6.60	Pyralmandite.	Orange-red.
L 16	Jaipur.	Schist.	4.24	12.05	81.74	0.80	5.41	Almandite.	Light crimson.
15.181.	Kalanandi.	Khondalite	..	13.31	78.10	..	7.79	Almandite.	Red.
F 367.	Kulu.	Mica-schist.	4.09 (4.11. 4.16)	11.53	62.70	13.47	12.80	Mangan-almandite.	Brown-red.
13/546	Bindarole, Nel-dore.	Pegmatite.	4.15	..	59.87	31.13	8.95	Spilmandite.	Orange-red to fiery red.
16/984	Wagora, Chhind-wara.	Gondite.	4.24 ¹	11.65	22.92	57.08	8.35	Ferro-spessartite.	Cinnamon.
17/63.	Ekhusa, Chhind-wara.	Pegmatite in Gondite.	3.95 (4.02)	4.65	18.20	62.78	11.68	2.69	Spessartite.	Orange-brown.
18/582	Nandan-Barampur, Nandan.	Apatite-spessartite rock	..	7.70	17.31	65.30	..	6.24	3.45	Spessartite.	Light buff.
18/912	Satak, Nagpur.	Gondite Series	4.13	..	10.58	86.66	2.76	Spessartite.	Yellow-brown.
A. 233.	Kotakarra, Vizagapatam.	Opalised kondurite.	..	0.77	17.24	38.50	32.43	11.06	Calc-spessartite.	..
18/432	Kodur, Vizagapatam.	Spandite rock (odurite Series)	3.72	2.53	3.16	30.46	5.40	53.42	Spandite.	Fiery-red.
A. 219.	Garbham, Vizagapatam.	Spandite-rock	4.02	6.88	..	23.44	..	43.70	5.47 +0.49 (Ba Fe)	17.02	..	Spandite.	Rich-red.
M. 1538	Hazaribagh.	Massive garnet rock in metamorphic rocks.	3.73	2.94	14.16	7.11	16.50	59.30	Mangan-grandidite	Brownish black to orange-brown.
..	Hazaribagh	Do.	8.735	4.66	4.56	..	18.15	72.63	Andradite (granulite).	Yellow brown to black.
A. 134	Bozraul, Ganjam.	Opalised kondurite.	3.76 ¹	2.18	4.99	6.95	50.13	36.45	Granulite.	Light brown.
1030	Chargaon, Nagpur	Gondite Series	4.15-4.2	19.79	..	17.68	..	16.01	..	12.81	34.72	Magnesia-blythite.	Orange-red to orange.
..	Katkamandi, Hazaribagh.	Massive quartz garnet rock,	4.02 ¹	2.20	..	3.90	25.34	68.56	..	Calderite (ferro-calderite).	Dark brown to black.

¹ Calculated from known analysis and specific gravity of rock.

The second molecule, $3\text{MnO}.\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$, occurs in large quantity in the analysis of calderite from Katkamsandi in Hazaribagh. This particular analysis has always been considered open to doubt and attempts to repeat Piddington's results, represented in the table by the other two analyses of garnet from Hazaribagh by Mallet and Mr. Godbole respectively, have failed to disclose the large percentage of manganese found by Piddington. However, the existence of this molecule in one example of spandite from Garbham in the Vizagapatam district (17%) and in one example of spessartite from Chargaon in the Central Provinces (13%) is proved by the two analyses A.219 and 1030, which were by competent analysts. We must therefore accept this molecule also as present in some garnets, and the appropriate name for it seems to be *calderite*, as has previously been suggested.¹

The third additional molecule is $3\text{MnO}.\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$, found only in one Indian garnet, at Chargaon in the Nagpur district, C. P. This garnet has hitherto been treated as a spessartite, but the abundant manganese is present as 18% of spessartite, 13% of calderite and 35% of $3\text{MnO}.\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$, the balance being pyrope and andradite. The analysis was very carefully carried out by the late Mr. T. R. Blyth, for many years Assistant Curator to the Geological Survey of India, on very carefully picked material. Mr. Blyth was known for his accurate analytical work and we must therefore accept the result as returned by Mr. Blyth as accurate. The amount of material used in the analysis was only $\frac{1}{2}$ gramme, so that it was not possible to determine the state of oxidation. Consequently the proportions of FeO , Fe_2O_3 , MnO , and Mn_2O_3 , had to be calculated on the assumption that the mineral conformed to the general garnet formula $3\text{RO}.\text{R}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$. Owing to the small amounts of alumina (8.05%) and Fe_2O_3 (8.38%), assuming all the iron as being in the ferric condition, there appears to be no escape from the $3\text{MnO}.\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3.3\text{SiO}_2$ molecule. In my memoir on the manganese-ore deposits of India, already cited, no attention was directed to this point and the presence of the Mn_2O_3 molecule in the garnet did not prevent my calling it spessartite. It seems to me desirable, however, to have a name for the molecule itself, and I propose to call it *blythite* after Mr. Blyth.

¹ *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXXVII, p. 184.

From this table it is seen that few of the garnets contain a high enough percentage of one molecule to be designated by that name alone. If names are to be used for the remainder, compound names seem inevitable. I find it difficult to devise any systematic method of compounding these names; but I have attempted to allow for any molecule present to the extent of 20% or over, either by amalgamating two names (pyralmandite, spalmandite, spandite, grandite), or by prefixing the name of a prominent chemical constituent (mangan-almandite, ferro-spessartite, calc-spessartite, mangan-grandite).

It is possible, of course, to devise formulæ to indicate the composition of complex garnets. Thus Uhlig¹ assigns the symbol of a chemical element to each garnet, indicating the principal distinguishing chemical characteristic thereof, and builds up formulæ according to the molecular proportions of the various garnets. Pentti Eskola² uses formulæ indicating the atomic percentages of the elements separately in each group of isomorphous constituents, preferring this method because in an isomorphous mixture one cannot ascertain how the protoxides are combined with the sesquioxides. As, however, one speaks of the various garnet molecules as if they exist, a conformable idea of the composition of any given garnet can be given by a formula built up of symbols indicating the various garnet molecules. Using the symbols Py, Al, Sp, Gr, An, Sk, Ca, Bl, for the 8 garnet molecules considered in this paper (see table No. 7), the 17 garnets in table 7 could be represented by formulæ of which the following are examples:—

J.371 Pyralmandite	$\text{Py}_{36}\text{Al}_{55}\text{Sp}_2\text{Gr}_7$
18/912 Spessartite	$\text{Al}_{11}\text{Sp}_{87}\text{Gr}_3$
A. 219 Spandite	$\text{Py}_7\text{Sp}_{23}\text{An}_{47}\text{Sk}_5\text{Ca}_{17}$
M.1538 Mangan-grandite	$\text{Py}_3\text{Al}_4\text{Sp}_7\text{Gr}_{16}\text{An}_9$
1030 Magnesia-blythite ("Spessartite")	$\text{Py}_{19}\text{Sp}_{18}\text{An}_{10}\text{Ca}_{13}\text{Bl}_{55}$

Some form of diagram may prove useful in indicating the relationships of a number of garnets. For a series of garnets containing as many as 8 molecules the diagrams used by Ford³ and

¹ *Verh. d. Naturh. Ver. d. Rheinl. u. Westf.*, Vol. 67, pp. 307-403, (1910): consulted in abstract in *Neues Jahrb. für. Min. Geol. u. Pal.*, Band I, 1912, p. 22.

² On the Eclogites of Norway, *Videnskaps. Skrifter*, I, Mat.-Naturv. Klasse, 1921, No. 8, p. 8.

³ *Amer. Jour. Sci.*, XL, pp. 33-49, (1915).

Eskola in the papers cited are unsuitable; and instead the type of diagram constructed in Plate 10 may be used. This diagram, which is constructed on a molecular basis, is not uninformative, as it shows a general relationship between mode of occurrence and composition. The almandite molecule is seen to be specially characteristic of the argillaceous crystalline schists, and of pegmatite: the spessartite molecule is characteristic of the Gondite and Kodurite Series and of a pegmatite cutting the Gondite Series: the andradite and grossularite molecules are abundant in some members of the Kodurite Series and the massive garnet-rocks of Hazaribagh whilst the additional molecules skiaegite, calderite, and blythite occur sporadically in the Gondite Series, the Kodurite Series, and the Hazaribagh massive garnet-rocks.

VII. Specific Gravity of Indian Garnets.

In his paper on the relations existing between the chemical, optical, and other physical properties of the members of the garnet group,¹ W. E. Ford makes a study of the relationship between specific gravity and chemical composition, using 64 analyses of garnets in which the difference between the observed and calculated specific gravities does not exceed 0.1. Adopting the following specific gravity values for the pure garnets:—

Pyrope	3.510
- Almandite	4.250
Spessartite	4.180
Grossularite	3.510
Andradite	3.750

Ford found that the average difference between the measured and calculated specific gravities of his 64 garnets was 0.045, or if the plus and minus signs were taken into consideration, it was only +0.002: he deduces therefrom that the values assigned above to the specific gravities of the various pure garnets must be nearly correct.

Using Ford's values for pure garnets, and taking only those Indian garnets that are free from the three new garnets, of which the specific gravity is unknown, we may compare the specific gra-

¹ *Amer. Jour. Sci.*, XL, pp. 33-49, (1915).

vity values given in Table No. 7 with those calculated from the pure garnets. This is done in the following table:—

TABLE NO. 8.

	Values from Table No. 7.	Calculated from values for pure garnets.
J.371	3.98	3.90
I. 16	4.24	4.09
F.367	4.09 (4.11-4.16)	4.04
13/546	4.15	4.15
16/984	4.24	4.04
17/63	3.95 (4.02)	4.06
18/912	4.13	4.17
233	3.72	3.87
M.1538	3.73	3.79
Hazaribagh	3.735	3.72
A.134	3.76	3.675

THE GEOLOGY OF THE ANDAMAN AND NICOBAR ISLANDS,
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO MIDDLE ANDAMAN
ISLAND. BY F. R. GEE, B.A., *Assistant Superintendent,*
Geological Survey of India. (With Plates 11 to 15.)

INTRODUCTION.

As a southern continuation of the longitudinal mountain ranges of western Burma, and separated from them by the Preparis Channel, the Andaman and Nicobar Archipelagoes occur as the peaks of a prominent oceanic mountain-arc extending in the Bay of Bengal from 10° 30' north latitude as far south as 6° 45' north latitude. From this latter point the arc continues in a south-easterly direction through the islands of Java and Sumatra.

From a point of view of geology the Andaman Group had previously received the attention of R. D. Oldham in 1885,¹ and of G. H. Tipper during the field-season of 1904-05.²

Previous references These authors had also visited some of the islands of the Nicobar Group. South Andaman Island, in the vicinity of Port Blair, was inspected by V. Ball³ and Mallet.⁴ The Nicobar Archipelago had also figured in the writings of Ball,³ Rink,⁵ and Hochstetter,⁶ whilst Ehrenburg⁷ made an examination of specimens of the Nicobar clays.

¹ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XVIII, pp. 135-145.

² *Mem., Geo. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XXXV, Pt. 4, (1911).

³ *Journ. As. Soc., Bengal*, XXXIX., p. 25. and p. 231.

⁴ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XVII, Pt. 2.

⁵ Die Nikobar Inseln. Kopenhagen, 1847. Translated *Selections, Records, Govt. Ind.*, LXXVII, pp. 105-153, (1870).

⁶ Beiträge zur Geologie und physikalischen Geographie der Nikobar Inseln. Geologischen Beobachtungen, von Ferdinand von Hochstetter. Riese der österreichischen Fregatte Novara um die Erde in Jahre 1857-59. Geologische Theil iii, pp. 85-112. Wien 1866. Translated in part, *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, II, pp. 59-73, (1870). *Selections Rec. Govt. Ind.*, LXXVII, pp. 208-229, (1870).

⁷ On an extensive rock-formation of Siliceous Polycystina from the Nicobar Islands. *Berlin Monatsbericht.* 1850, pp. 476-478. Abstract in *Quart. Journ. Geol. Soc.* London, Vol. VII, pt. 2., p. 118, (1851),

It was during the early part of 1924 that the present survey was carried out. This survey includes—

Period and extent of present survey.

- (a) the geological mapping of the greater part of Middle Andaman Island;
- (b) a visit to the islands of the Ritchie's Archipelago;
- (c) a trip to Rutland Island, Little Andaman Island and several of the islands of the Nicobar Group.

I am especially indebted to Col. Ferrar, O.B.E., Chief Commissioner of the Andamans and Nicobars, for his kind assistance, and to members of the Forest Department for their help during the tour of Middle Andaman Island. In addition I wish to thank Major R. B. Seymour Sewell, I.M.S., Director, Zoological Survey of India, for permission to include the two photographs, forming Plates 11 and 13.

MIDDLE ANDAMAN ISLAND.

Middle Andaman, the central island of the Andaman Group, is separated from North Andaman Island by Austin Strait, and from South Andaman Island by Homfray Strait. It was not visited in 1904-05, the supposition at that time being that it was frequented by the wild Jarawa tribes. These people, however, appear nowadays to confine themselves to South Andaman Island and the few inhabitants whom we came across in the Middle Island were quite friendly.

The island is from 15 to 18 miles wide, and about 40 miles in length. The eastern coast-line comprises a series of rocky spurs separating stretches of sandy sea-shore often fringed by coral-reefs. The southern portion is, however, much more highly indented by creeks reaching inland for a considerable distance and lined by dense mangrove swamps.

The eastern half of the mainland includes the more prominent ridges and hills, which rise to a height of 1678 feet and 1527 feet in the peaks of Mt. Diavolo and Angelica respectively. More centrally situated is the Mt. Baker ridge which similarly follows a north to south strike. But in the northern part of the island the line of hills of which Sound Peak (1188 feet) is the highest, runs at right-angles to this general trend.

General Geology.

The rocks of the island comprise two main classes :—

1. The Sedimentary Series.
2. The Serpentine Series.

They therefore correspond, as one would expect, with the strata of the north and south islands. The serpentines, being the more resistant to the action of weathering, form most of the prominent hills and ridges above noted. By their decomposition they have

Vegetation. given rise to a very thick covering of fertile soil, and being capable of containing large quantities of water, which they give up very gradually, they furnish very dense evergreen jungles of the *gurjan* type with thick undergrowths of cane, bamboo, etc., throughout the year. The sedimentary areas are also well-wooded. In these forests the semi-deciduous *padouk* is most prominent, and the change from one area where the serpentine rocks prevail, to another where the porous sedimentaries are predominant, is very striking. Where the more impervious clays occur among the sedimentary strata, the forests are more dense and resemble those of the serpentine areas.

A note on the surface drainage of the island brings out another marked difference between the serpentine and the sedimentary areas. The majority of the streams, arising in

Surface drainage. the areas where the more porous sandstones and conglomerates prevail, are either quite dry during the early months of the year, or occur as a number of separate pools linked together by a gradual seepage of water beneath the surface in the sandy beds of the watercourses. Those, however, which have for their gathering-ground the serpentine highlands, preserve a continuous flow of clear water throughout the year, rendering the valleys extremely fertile and suited to cultivation.

Almost the only roadway through the island is an elephant-track used by the Forest Department to connect up Bom-lung-ta in the south with Bonnington in the extreme

Communications. north-east. The inspection of the island was carried out by making successive camps along this path and working east and west as far as possible. Owing to the denseness of the jungles, in spite of the tireless efforts of the Burmans who accompanied me, progress was often very slow. By making a hurried trip along the coast the survey of the eastern portion of the island was

roughly completed. It was hoped that a similar tour of the west coast would allow of the inspection of the western part of the island also, but this was prevented by the approach of the monsoon. From information received from members of the Forest Department who had visited that area, it seems probable that the sedimentaries prevail westwards to the coast.

For the maps of the island (2-inch to the mile, 1913-14 Survey), I am indebted to the Chief Conservator of Forests of the Andamans. The map accompanying this paper is a copy of these reduced to a scale of 1 inch to 4 miles. (Plate 12.)

Geological formations. As above-mentioned, the following stratigraphical formations were recognised :—

1. The Eocene Sedimentaries.
2. The Serpentine Series, probably of Cretaceous age.

In addition several small outcrops of limestone, probably of a more recent age, were met with in the north of the island.

1. *The Eocene Sedimentaries.*—The Eocene strata comprise the greater part of the mainland and in their lithology appear to be transitional between the predominant conglomerates

Description of strata. of the north island and the sandstones and clays of the south, all three types being represented. The conglomerates with sandstones interbedded are characteristic of the more northern portion of the mainland whilst the clays, intercalated with the sandstones, occur more frequently in the area around Bomlung-ta and to the south. Conglomerate beds are, however, met with in the vicinity of the inliers of the older Cretaceous rocks throughout the island, being well-represented in the

The conglomerates. higher ground of the island of Porlob. They include coarse varieties in which the pebbles are well-rounded and range up to several inches in diameter, though the harder quartzitic pebbles are somewhat angular. The pebbles include chiefly white and yellow quartzites, with red jaspers and grey quartzitic sandstones. In addition small pebbles of serpentine rock occur together with volcanic types, usually of andesitic or vesicular basaltic character. The larger felspars of these volcanics are often replaced by calcite, or the rock has apparently undergone silicification, becoming somewhat cherty. The conglomerate matrix is often arenaceous, but sometimes argillaceous, of dull-green colour, and probably derived largely from the serpentines.

The sandstones grade into the conglomerates and vary considerably in texture. They are usually porous and sometimes slightly micaceous. Their colour varies with the nature

The sandstones. of the iron-content, green types being prevalent, but brown and yellow varieties, the latter often showing concentric rings due to more intensive staining with ferric oxide, occur in some parts of the island. In other cases the iron occurs in a more concretionary form. Forming the falls of many of the streams of the eastern half of the island, these sandstones are very massive. In some parts, they, together with the other sedimentaries, contain local intercalations of gypsum.

Identifiable fossils were obtained from a bed of blue-grey calcareous sandstone in the northern part of the island. These were foraminifera of the type *Assilina granulosa*

Fossils and age of the sandstone series. d'Archaic, characteristic of the Lower Eocene beds of Sind, Baluchistan, the Punjab, and Lower Burma, and denoting an horizon equivalent to the Laki beds of those regions of western India. This is the same species of *assilina* as was found by Tipper in the rocks of the southern island; it is illustrated in Plate 14, Fig. 4. The cross-section of a similar form taken from the same piece of sandstone shows from 4 to 5 whorls, the outer 3 to 4 whorls being large and not increasing very much in size after the second whorl. The septa are almost vertical, about 20 in a whorl, and the chambers about $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as high as broad. The specimens show no sign of wear, suggesting that they are not derived from pre-existing Eocene sediments. They therefore point to at least a part of these sedimentaries being of Lower Eocene age.

In the more argillaceous types of sandstones which occur associated with the clays of the Bom-lung-ta valley, occasional unidentifiable plant-fragments are to be found.

The clays are usually dark or light-green in colour, together with bluish varieties. They are often considerably indurated and shaly, as exposed in the Bom lung-ta valley. Several

The clay beds. small outcrops of coal were met with, associated with the clays and sandstones of the south. These were sometimes of lenticular form, up to 18 inches in thickness, and appeared to be of the nature of 'pockets' in the sediments. One exposure, in a western tributary of the Bom-lung-ta River to the north of the camp, suggested a more definite seam about 15 inches in thickness. The coal was of a jet black colour and of a

very friable texture, and burnt with a very smoky flame. Other less carbonised plant-remains occur in many of the clays. Occasionally calcareous concretions taking an ovoid form occur in the clay beds.

The occurrence of pebbles of volcanic rock in the conglomerates of the island has already been mentioned. In addition, the inclusion of material of definite volcanic origin in the sandstones is very peculiar (Plate 14, fig. 1). The sandstone grains are usually very angular and include fragments of volcanic ash

Occurrence of volcanic rock. and numerous fragments of angular felspars.

By the decomposition of these constituents the rock becomes very porous and often friable. Such ashy sandstones are prominent in the conspicuous hill near the Yol Jig and again in the north of the island in the green sandstones around Bonnington. Similar strata also occur in other parts of the island grading into beds of volcanic tuff usually of andesitic type. Such definite volcanic ashes appear to occur at the base of the sandstone division.

More striking, however, is the occurrence of outcrops of definite volcanic rock of intermediate and basic character. In the Bom-lung-ta Creek, a short distance above Sinkar, an isolated outcrop of basalt occurs in the mangrove swamp. The rock is an olivine basalt consisting of numerous lath-shaped labradorite crystals with marked flow-structure (Plate 14, fig. 3). The olivine occurs as fairly large crystals partly decomposed into calcite and serpentine. Unaltered augite is also present. These constituents together with the numerous felspar laths are included in a brown matrix in which magnetite grains are frequent. Irregular cracks in the rock are filled with spherulites of secondary mineral of a faint green colour, probably serpentine. Again, in a stream leading down the western slopes of Mount Wood, a large boulder of green vesicular volcanic rock was observed (Plate 14, fig. 2). I was unable at the time to trace this rock up the slopes to its point of origin, and had hoped to make a more detailed search from the east coast. On account of the shortness of the visit to the latter portion of the island at the end of the season the area was not re-examined. The rock is a vesicular augite andesite consisting of large porphyritic crystals of albite, some augite, and with numerous vesicles filled with secondary green celadonite(?) in the form of spherulites. The matrix is brownish-green in colour, composed partly of glass. Near the

same locality a purple breccia of angular blocks of andesitic rock outcrops in the stream-course.

The question of the stratigraphical age of these volcanics is somewhat speculative considering the number and the nature of the outcrops met with. From the fact, however, that these volcanics are

Stratigraphical position of the volcanics.

frequent as pebbles in the Lower Eocene conglomerates, and, on the other hand, do not exhibit the marked alteration which the older

rocks associated with the serpentine series show, it is probable that they represent a phase of volcanic activity following on the primary upheavals of these older serpentine rocks, and preceding the deposition of the Eocene sediments.

2. *The Serpentine Series.*—As previously mentioned the serpentines and their associated rocks comprise many of the hills and ridges of the central and the eastern parts of the island. These include altered basic and ultra-basic intrusions of plutonic type with occasional doleritic dykes, occurring in close association with red and green jaspers, purple porcellanic limestones, hard grey and yellow quartzites, together with occasional outcrops of calcareous gneiss.

The rocks composing these plutonic complexes vary from augite, enstatite, and bronzite peridotites, composed almost wholly of the

The plutonics.

pyroxene with olivine, to more felspathic types belonging to the gabbro group. The olivine is often largely altered to serpentine. In these rocks numerous magnetite grains are often included, together with crystals of

Occurrence of chromite.

picotite; occasionally chromite crystals were definitely observed in the rock-section. This mineral—chromite—was noted in specimens

of enstatite peridotite from the Sound Peak inlier, and also from similar rocks from the serpentine area to the south of Beta-pur-dina. In many cases these rocks had suffered considerably from crushing and shearing, so that most of the primary minerals had been decomposed and largely replaced by green serpentine. A

Alteration to serpentine.

peculiar rock, apparently the result of the alteration of these ultra-basic intrusives, was seen to crop out near the indurated sandstones and shales

at two points in the stream to the north of Beta-pur-dina. The rock was of a distinct glassy type, of light green colour, resembling jade though very much softer; it is talcose and could be easily ground

into a fine white powder. It outcropped almost vertically in the water-course in a very much shattered state, separating readily along wavy planes as though these represented surfaces of flow of a very viscous liquid. Following these curved surfaces were flakes of calcite. It is probable that the junction with the sedimentaries was a faulted one and that the intense alteration of the exposed rock is the result of the crushing at the fault. Several other exposures of altered serpentinous rock were met with, but usually the connection with the sedimentaries was hidden by alluvium.

The older sedimentary beds include four prominent rock types :

(a) Jaspers.

The Older Sedimentaries. (b) Porcellanic limestones.

(c) Quartzites.

(d) Calc-gneisses.

(a) *The jaspers.*—The jaspers occur as red and greenish types sometimes in the vicinity of the serpentines but also as individual outcrops among the younger sediments of Lower Tertiary age. They are often reticulated with thin veins of white quartz, and fracture conchoidally or into very angular fragments. They are quite distinct from the group of younger sedimentaries and doubtless owe their present indurated character and shattered appearance to the effects of the intrusion of the plutonics and to the subsequent earth-movements which have resulted in the folded character of the rocks of the island. They constitute the northern promontory of Porlob Island, Rosamond Point, and the coastal spur just south of Cuthbert Bay. They also crop out at several places on the mainland.

(b) *The limestones.*—The limestones are of a purple or dull-red porcellanic type, and occur as small inliers among the Tertiaries.

(c) *The quartzites.*—The quartzites are associated with the older sedimentaries in the neighbourhood of the serpentines. They are usually of a grey colour, very hard, and in section consist of a mosaic of quartz-grains of medium texture. They appear to be quite distinct from the later sandstones, their purity alone indicating them as a separate group. Occasional outcrops of yellow quartzites occur with the red jaspers. Large boulders of similar rock are seen in the Bom-lung-ta stream a short distance above the forest camp of that name.

(d) *The calc-gneisses*.—The calcareous gneisses occur as very occasional outcrops among the sedimentaries. Very similar to

Suggested formation of the calc-gneisses. exposures seen in the southern island to the south of Port Blair and along the coast of

Woodmason Bay, Rutland Island, they evidently formed a part of the pre-Tertiary land-surface on which the younger sediments were deposited. They are minutely foliated and have apparently been derived by the intense metamorphism of the highly calcified serpentine rocks, for they are seen in section to contain occasional chromite grains and inclusions of green serpentinous material. Subsequent dynamic metamorphism has resulted in the foliation of these altered calcified products.

Small outcrops of these rocks occur in the neighbourhood of the serpentines, also in the valley near the village of Bom-lung-ta, and on the coast just to the north of the Cuthbert Bay promontory.

Exposures of limestones, probably of Post-Eocene Age.

In addition to the above-described strata several small outcrops of cream and grey limestones occur in the stream-beds of the northern part of the island. Their included fossils indicate a higher horizon than that of the arenaceous

Occurrence of Lithothamnion.

sediments of the mainland. In one of the eastern tributaries of the Tugapur River, not far from the main stream, a cream-coloured limestone occurs jutting out almost horizontally from the western bank. The latter being composed largely of sandy alluvium, the relations with the arenaceous sediments of the neighbourhood are obscured. A section of this limestone when examined under the microscope shows the rock to be composed largely of small nummulites which in cross-section are somewhat globose (Plate 15, fig. 4). Together with these foraminifera, are fragments of the alga, *Lithothamnion*. The latter contain conceptacles, lying near the surface of the filament, ovoid in vertical section, and opening at the surface for the dispersion of the spores. These conceptacles are of the type figured by Rothpletz¹ under the name of *Lithothamnion suganum*. Plate 15, fig. 2. As noted previously² a section of these nummulitic limestones strongly suggests the form *Nummulites planulatus*. It was impossible to extract a

¹ Fossile Kalkalgen, Zeit. deutsch. geol. Ges., Vol. XLIII, p. 295, (1891).

² Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind., Vol. LVIII, pt. 1, p. 38, (1925).

specimen from the limestone for examination, and on reconsideration, after an examination of other limestone exposures, it seems probable that the deposit is of a more recent age than is suggested by this horizon fossil. In this limestone echinoid spines are moderately abundant, while other foraminifera, *Nodosaria* and *Globigerina*, are occasionally included.

Again, in the eastern part of the island large boulders of greyish limestone are met with in one of the streams. This in section reveals the *Lithothamnion* fragments containing pear-shaped conceptacles arranged in a row parallel to the curved outer surface and very similar to the types figured under the name *Lithothamnion nummuliticum*. (Plate 15, fig. 1.) Although these included fossils give no very definite evidence of the horizon of the limestone, a middle or late Tertiary age is suggested by the occurrences of a very similar limestone in parts of the other islands.

Definite evidence of a late Tertiary deposit was met with in the northwestern islands of the Ritchie's Archipelago, and there is reason to suppose an incursion of the sea over some parts of the mainland at a similar period, forming a shallow-water gulf for the deposition of these limestones.

THE RITCHIE'S ARCHIPELAGO.

The Ritchie's Archipelago includes the group of islands lying from ten to fifteen miles to the east of the Middle and Southern Andaman Islands, between latitudes $12^{\circ} 20'$ and $11^{\circ} 46'$. The main islands of the group—

Position.

Neill, Havelock, Nicholson, John Lawrence, Henry Lawrence, and Outram Islands, run in a general north-to south direction, and are separated by shallow creeks, along the shores of which mangrove swamps flourish. Mangrove is also prominent along the less exposed portions of the sea-coast, separated by spurs of clays, argillaceous sandstones and shelly limestones, of which the islands are composed.

Fairly thick forests prevail throughout the islands. In those parts where the impervious clays are predominant the evergreen types of jungle flourish, but in other areas where the more pervious limestones prevail, as for example on parts of Wilson Island, *paduk* and other deciduous trees, with a less dense undergrowth, are present.

Vegetation.

The islands had previously been visited by R. D. Oldham, who had designated the clays of this archipelago as quite distinct from the

Geology of the islands visited. sedimentaries of the main Andaman group, and had correlated them with similar beds of the Nicobars, probably of Miocene age.

In general the strata of the islands can be separated into two main groups:

A more recent division of very loosely consolidated shelly sandstones containing numerous gastropod and lamellibranch shells with occasional corals and echinoids.

A lower series of grey and greenish clays, argillaceous sandstones, white shelly limestones and occasional conglomerates—the Archipelago Group of Oldham.

The Archipelago clay series are more affected by earth-movements than the upper beds, and where these latter deposits occur they are almost horizontal or very gently inclined, whilst the clays outcrop with a general north-to-south strike and an inclination as high as 60° in some parts of the archipelago. In no case, however, has the folding been so intense as with the rocks of the mainland, so that from their general appearance and structure, these argillaceous beds signify a younger series of sediments than those of the Middle Andaman Island. The stratigraphy in greater detail of the islands visited was as follows:—

1. *Sir Hugh Rose Island*.—A visit was paid to the northern point of this most southern island of Ritchie's Archipelago. In a steep cliff-section a shelly sandstone occurs resting on the clays. This sandstone contains numerous imperfectly preserved specimens of gastropods and lamellibranchs, most of which have been dissolved and only their ferruginous casts remain, so that the rocks are very porous. Where the shell-fragments are most abundant the matrix has become consolidated to form a hard band of impure shelly limestone. Although no identifiable species could be procured from the deposit the general appearance of the fauna, and the occurrence of the rock, assign it to a more recent group of Tertiary sediments than the clays. It is obviously a shallow water deposit and corresponds with the partially consolidated shell sands of Neill Island and the ferruginous shelly sands of Outram Island to be considered later.

2. *Neill Island*.—A large portion of Neill Island is composed of the light-green and grey Archipelago clays. These are well-exposed

in the cliffs of the north-eastern part of the island where they dip northwards at an angle of 25° .

The cliffs of the western portion of the island are, however, formed of a yellow shelly sandstone, partially consolidated and weathering in honey-comb fashion. This sandstone dips north-west at 20° , in the point to the south of Cape Mears. It contains fossiliferous bands in which specimens of echinoids and lamellibranchs were obtained. The latter resembled recent species of the genus *Pecten*. The echinoids, however, gave a more definite indication of the stratigraphical horizon of the deposit. One specimen, a type of *Marelia*, is almost identical with the living species *Marelia planulatus*, now found in the Andaman seas. The specimen is slightly more flattened than the living type but this may possibly be due to crushing in the deposit. Considering the rapidity with which evolution took place in the echinoids in the Tertiary epoch the striking resemblance of this fossil type to living species is strong evidence for a fairly recent horizon for this deposit, probably as late as the Pleistocene. A fragment of the test of a *Temnopleurus* type of echinoid was also found in the deposit. The rock is obviously of shallow-water origin, and the relative uplift of this island appears to have been going on quite recently, for on parts of the coast boulders of recent coral, occurring above high-water mark, extend inland for some distance.

3. *Havelock Island*.—This is the largest of the Archipelago islands, being about 11 miles long and up to 5 miles in width. A tour was made around the coast of this island, where the best sections are available. The interior is covered with thick forests and swamp. The grey and white clays again form the greater part of this island. In several parts of the coast a level tract, a few feet above high-water level, extended inwards for a short distance. Occasional pieces of coral and recent shells were met with, suggesting possible relative uplift in recent times. On the other hand in some places these might represent a deposit of fine sand blown up by the monsoons on to the coral reefs which fringe the sea-shore at many points.

The white clays are well-exposed in the steep cliffs around the coasts. In the north-west promontory they dip north-west at 45° . Further south blue-grey sandy clays are intercalated. In the neighbourhood of Prince's Inlet and continuing to the south to Sail Rock the white and cream-coloured clays are predominant, the dip changing through north-east to east, and in the extreme

south of the island the inclination is to the south, up to 45° . Approaching these prominent white cliffs down the western coast, fine argillaceous light-green sandstones are intercalated in the clays, and a small overthrust to the south is exposed in the coastal section. In these arenaceous bands an imperfect fossil belonging to the genus *Pecten* was found. A short distance further south several types of lamellibranchs and a *Dentalium* were discovered in the clays. The shells of these specimens, though quite well preserved, were much decomposed and very fragile, so that they readily broke up when removed from the matrix. They include :

A species of *Pholas*, similar to that figured by Noetling as *P. orientalis*.

A species of *Pinna*.

A *Dentalium* similar to the type figured by Martin as *D. nangunense*.

A form of lamellibranch was also included. Although these fossils throw no very definite light on the exact horizon of the deposit in which they occur, they certainly suggest the conditions under which these argillaceous beds have been deposited. All the specimens are exceptionally thick-shelled, suggesting that the deposit is of shallow-water origin, certainly

Probable shallow-water origin of the Archipelago clay series.

not of the deep-ooze class of sediments, as indicated by some previous writers. Again, a short distance east of Sail Rock a light-green slightly carbonaceous clay crops out with soft argillaceous sandstones, adding further evidence to the supposition of a shallow-water mode of formation for the series. Up the east coast, harder grey and green arenaceous bands stand out from the softer clays, the dip being to the south-east at an angle of from 40° to 50° .

In general structure, therefore, the rocks of the island appear to occur as an anticline with its axis running north-east to south-west, and cutting through the island between Melville Point and Prince's Inlet.

3. *Nicholson Island*.—Nicholson Island is largely surrounded by a fringe of mangrove swamp except in the extreme south-east. At this point the white clays stand out prominently. Inland the island is well forested.

4. *John Lawrence Island*.—Mangrove again hides any exposures over a considerable portion of the coast, though several cliff-sections

are observable. In the south of the island light-grey and white clays are predominant, with intercalations of fine argillaceous, slightly micaceous sandstones. The latter exhibit false-bedding at certain horizons, and dip in an easterly direction at from 8° to 10° .

5. *Henry Lawrence Island*.—Much of the eastern coast of this island is lined with mangrove swamp, but the sedimentaries stand out at several points forming white and grey cliffs in the southern and the northern parts of the island. In the extreme south the strata strike in a general north-north-west direction, the rocks occurring as a low anticline followed by a syncline to the east. The dip varies up to 12° . The rocks are of the argillaceous types previously met with. A short distance up the Kwangtung Strait a stretch of loose sand containing recent marine shells and raised about 6 feet above high-sea level occurs within the shore, suggesting a relative fall of sea-level within recent times.

The exposures of the north-east of the island were also visited. The strike is here in a north-west direction, the strata cropping out in a synclinal, in which the dip varies from 20° to 45° . White clays and argillaceous sandstones occur in the north with a hard well-jointed blue-grey limestone interbedded further south.

6. *Outram Island*.—This island, situated just north of Henry Lawrence Island, consists of two north-to-south-striking ridges linked together by a low isthmus. Sandstones are here more prominent with the argillaceous strata, and in the south-western point of the island these dip north-east at 30° . In the north-west corner dark-grey clays are intercalated in the strata, which here dip south-east at a low angle.

In the extreme south-east of the island another cliff section is observed. This however comprises more recent strata than the clays and consists of a series of yellow sands

Occurrence of ferruginous shelly sands.

with shell fragments, dipping north-east at 5° . At the south-east point of the island these beds pass into a series of alternating coarse-textured brown ferruginous shell-sands separated by harder consolidated bands of a similar nature. These harder layers are from 4 to 6 inches in thickness, whilst the softer, only partially consolidated, or unconsolidated bands range up to two feet in width. The rock contains numerous fossils, many fragmentary, but others from the softer layers can be obtained in good condition. They include corals, gastropoda, and lamellibranchs, together with several small fora-

minifera, and a carapace of a crab. This latter fossil, Major R. B. S. Sewell has very kindly identified as belonging to the genus *Phyllyra*. In general the fauna is representative of a late Tertiary horizon. Several of the species appear to be identical with the Miocene types from Burma as figured by Dr. Noetling, whilst others were comparable with recent forms now living in Indian seas. It is suggested, therefore, that these strata are of late Tertiary, Pliocene or Pleistocene age, and correspond with the newer shallow-water deposits of Neill Island and others. They, too, were obviously deposited at no great depth.

These fossil forms include :

Corals.

Forms similar to *Paracyathus carulus*, Noet. spp. to *Ceratatrochus* and *Gastropods*.

Torinia spp.

Conus spp., similar to *C. odengensis*, Mart., but also resembling closely some recent types.

Conus spp., resembling *C. generalis* of Recent age.

Fusus, 3 spp., one species closely resembling *F. ambustus*.

Drillia spp.

Olivia spp., very similar to *Ol. australis* Duclos var.

Natica, 2 spp.

Turbonilla spp., resembling *T. rufa* from the Pliocene.

Rissoina spp.

Dentalium spp., similar to *D. tenuistriatum*.

Lamellibranchs.

Pecten, 3 spp., belonging to the sub-genus *Chlamys* and resembling the species '*javanus*' as figured by Martin.

Venus, differing slightly from *Cryptogramma scabra* as figured by Martin.

Leda virgo.

Cuspidaria spp., similar to *C. cuspidata*.

7. *Strait Island*.—This small island is situated within 3 miles of the mainland, due west of Outram Island. The rocks of the island form a steep broken anticline with the axis running north to south, and cutting through the island just to the west of the southern promontory. The strata include the white and grey clays, but with them are associated bands of shelly sandstone with ferruginised shell fragments. Conglomerates occur as a band in the south-western

sedimentaries. These latter beds, dipping at a fairly steep angle, are interesting from the fact that they contain several types of fishes' teeth. They are comparable to the Mid-Tertiary types of other areas but give little definite information concerning the age of the clay series. Several of the types belong, as one would expect, to the shark family.

8. *Colebrook's Island*.—Colebrook's Island, like Outram Island, consists of two rock ridges at the eastern and western extremities of the island, linked together by a low-lying isthmus of mangrove. The rocks of these two eastern and western promontories differ markedly from each other. In the south-eastern one the white cliffs of the Archipelago clay group of sediments are well seen. Forming the south-western point of the island, the older rocks, as met with on the mainland of Middle Andaman Island, are observed in the coastal exposures. These include the pink procclanic limestones, together with brecciated red jasper rock and conglomerates. The relations between these two series are, however, hidden by the stretch of mangrove swamp separating the two exposures.

9. *Long Island*.—Long Island is situated off the south-east coast of Middle Andaman Island. Around the east coast coral beaches

raised a few feet above the present sea-level
Occurrence of tufa. stretch inland for a short distance. Further inland, forming the hilly ground, are outcrops of calcareous shelly sandstone, yellow and grey in colour, and containing numerous shell-fragments, by the partial solution of which the rock has become consolidated but remains porous. These grade into shelly limestones. White and grey argillaceous limestones and clays also occur in the north of the island. The rocks definitely belong to the Archipelago Group of sediments. In the centre of the island, a waterfall in the stream, where calcareous sandstones are exposed, is covered with a deposit of recent tufa, which is still forming rapidly.

10. *Wilson Island*.—Wilson Island, a small island lying among the northern islands of the main Archipelago, reveals the lower grey clays and fine sandstones around the coast. Above these, forming the higher parts of the island, a white porous limestone is seen. A section of these limestones shows them to contain *Lepidocylinæ* and fragments of algæ, probably *Lithothamnion*.

From the above investigations it seems probable that, as suggested by Oldham, the main clay series of these islands comprises strata

of Mid-Tertiary age. These, from the evidence of their included fossils, carbonaceous inclusions, sandstone and conglomerate bands in various parts of the islands, appear to be definitely of shallow water origin, or formed at only a moderate depth. It is suggested that they were laid down in the seaward extension of the gulf which, stretching northwards into Lower Burma, resulted in the estuarine formations of that area during Miocene times. Following the formation of the clays and their associated sandstones, the foraminiferal limestones as seen in Wilson Island, and the shelly limestones of Long Island, were deposited; and at a later period the shelly sandstones and unconsolidated sands, as exposed in the southern islands of the group and again in Outram Island, were laid down in the shallow coastal seas. As a result of a quite recent relative uplift of the land, these late deposits were raised above sea-level to form the cliffs of the islands as indicated.

RUTLAND ISLAND, THE CINQUE ISLANDS, AND LITTLE ANDAMAN ISLAND, ETC.

Rutland Island.—The greater part of Rutland Island is composed of the rocks of the igneous series. Serpentine rocks predominate, while veined jaspers and grey quartzites, together with the foliated calc-gneiss, also crop out occasionally. In the coastal section just north of Woodmason Bay on the west coast sandstones and shales occur and extend throughout the north-western portion of the island as far as the promontory named Norman Town. These sandstones, etc., resemble representatives of the Port Blair series of Lower Tertiary sediments. In this northern part of the island they occur as an anticline followed by a syncline in the extreme north-west with an axis running north-east to south-west. The dip varies from 30° to 50° . The rocks are mainly sandstones, slightly micaceous, and blue-grey or yellow in colour. In them bands of bedded mudstones are intercalated.

Several islands of the Labyrinth Archipelago were visited; Jolly Boys Island, Malay Tapu, and Hobday Island. In these islands similar sandstones predominate, together with bands of grey clays, the strata being thrown into a series of folds striking north-to-south. This structure is well exposed in the cliffs of Malay Tapu.

A visit was also paid to the two small islands, the Twins, to the west of Rutland Island. With outcrops of the veined plutonics

Evidence of recent relative uplift of the land. and their associated rocks, the coast also shows evidence of recent relative elevation of the land in the occurrence of a sandy beach about 6 feet above high tide, and again in the presence of a recent pebble conglomerate similarly raised above the present high-tide level, and fringing the coast of the north-western part of the western island.

The Cinque Islands.—The rocks of the Cinque islands comprise the older serpentine series, mainly altered peridotites in which one type rich in bronzite stands out prominently. Associated with these altered plutonics are occasional grey quartzites and veined volcanic rock. The latter is composed largely of minute felspar crystals and hornblende derived from augite; the felspars show definite parallel orientation.

A raised beach of fine sand with recent shell-fragments about 15 feet above high-water level occurs on the west coast of the southern island.

Little Andaman Island.—This island, lying to the south of Rutland Island, and continuing the chain into the Nicobar Group, was visited at two points, at Jackson Creek in the north-west and at Hut Bay in the south-east. The island is very low-lying and covered with thick jungle. The interior has not been surveyed. The inhabitants, though supposed to be closely allied to the hostile Jarawa tribes of South Andaman and of North Sentinel Islands, were found to be quite amicable so far as our investigations were concerned. Very few rock exposures occur on the coast, the sea-shore consisting of stretches of fine sand separated by intervening mangrove swamps.

At Jackson Creek an exposure of light-green slightly micaceous fine sandstone forms a prominent cliff on the north-east side of the bay. These sandstones are weathered in honey-comb fashion between high and low water marks, and resemble in lithology some of the Port Blair types, though on the whole of a finer variety. Bands of argillaceous sandstone are interbedded. The rocks dip gently to the east at from 15° to 18° . From the sandstones occurring just above high-water level an imperfect specimen of *Pecten*, a thin-shelled form, was obtained.

The erosion of these sandstone cliffs during recent times again points to a relative depression of the sea-level. A definite platform, evidently the result of coastal erosion, now situated about 10 feet above the present eroded coast-level, together with a small cave in these sandstones well above the present high tide mark, bear evidence of recent earth-movement.

A landing was next made at the south-west corner of Hut Bay. At this point unquestionable evidence of the occurrence of beds of recent coral rock *in situ*, above the present sea-level, was noted. Following inland a short distance, a small stream enters from the west.

Recent coral rock of the mainland around Hut Bay. In the bed of this stream boulders of recent coral were abundant, and also occurred in the dense undergrowth in the vicinity of the stream. From the low-lying topography of many parts of the island it seems possible that other parts of the coast are composed of similar coral exposed by a recent relative uplift of the land.

An interesting point was the way in which the natives of the island obtained supplies of fresh-water from the coral rock of this part of the coast. This fresh-water, forming a part of the drainage of the interior, percolating through the very porous raised coral rock, was apparently held up by the denser sea-water of the coast, and could be obtained from the larger cavities in the coral, now covered by a dense undergrowth, at a depth of about one to one-and-a-half feet, below the surface. This was at a point about 60 yards distant from the sea-coast. The level of the fresh-water, so far as one could judge, appeared to be almost the same as—perhaps a little above—the surface of the water in the bay. It is somewhat surprising to find that this water, occurring so near the coast, and in a rock in which the conditions for rapid transfusion appeared to be very favourable should remain uncontaminated.

A more striking example of this phenomenon was observed later during the visit to the Nicobar Islands; this is described below (p. 228).

At the northern point of Hut Bay a dissected promontory of steep cliffs of white and cream-coloured foraminiferal limestone forms a striking feature of this south-eastern coast. No definite stratification is observed, the rock surface weathering in honey-comb

Lithothamnion limestone occurrence.

form. Included in the limestone are blocks of green and brown sandstones of varying sizes, similar in type to those forming the exposures of Jackson Creek. As detached blocks within the reach of the tides, similar limestone was seen to include blocks of red jasper and veined gneiss. It seems probable that the latter boulders of more ancient rock were brought some distance by the sea, and not derived from the existing strata of the neighbourhood. The inclusion of the blocks of sandstone at least suggests a late Tertiary age for the deposit, and such is supported by its general character and nature of occurrence. A microscopical section of the limestone shows it to consist of a number of small nummulites and fragments of *Lithothamnion*, together with a reticulation of calcareous meshes. (Plate 15, fig. 4.) The *Lithothamnion* fragments show conceptacles of the *L. suganum* type (Plate 15, fig. 2). Other small foraminifera, including *Textularia*, are occasional. These foraminiferal and algal remains are embedded in a matrix of crystalline calcite. The limestone appears to represent a coastal formation formed in late Tertiary times and recently raised above sea-level.

THE NICOBAR ISLANDS.

The Nicobar Islands continue the Andaman arc to the south, reaching a point as far south as $6^{\circ} 45'$ north latitude. Three main types of strata are represented in the rocks of the Archipelago. In the islands of the northern half of the group the serpentine series together with the grey Nicobar clay group of Mid-Tertiary age are dominant, whilst in the islands of Little and Great Nicobar, and of Kondul and Pulo Milo associated with this southern portion of the chain, the arenaceous facies suggesting relations to the rocks of the main Andaman Group, are observed.

During the cruise, brief visits were paid to the following islands ; Kar Nicobar Island, Chaura, Kamorta, Tilanchong, Batti Malv ; and in the south to Pulo Milo, Kondul, and Great Nicobar Island.

Extent of visit.

1. *Kar Nicobar Island*.—The strata of Kar Nicobar, the most northerly island of the group, include the soft grey clays of the central portion of the island and of parts of the coast, partially surrounded by a rim of raised coral of Recent age. This fringe of coral is prominent all along the east coast of the island and on it the coconut flourishes in abundance. A visit was paid to the village of Mus in the

extreme north of the island, and an inspection was also made of the coast of Sawi Bay. The raised recent coral rock and fine sand deposit form the site of the village, and in fact, of most of the settlements of the island. This is no doubt on account of the ease with which an existence is obtained from the growth of the coconut, and also from the fact that at these points fresh-water is obtainable throughout the year.

A note on the supply of drinkable water for the village of Mus is worth recording. Much liquor is obtained from the coconut itself, but wells of drinking-water occur in and around the village. These were all sunk in the coral rock, often at quite short distances from the sea-shore, and the supply of uncontaminated water continued without

a break. Further inquiries from Mr. E. Hart, the only British representative living in the islands at that time, resulted in the following

written statement: "Our water-supply is fairly abundant. Our deepest well is 27 feet and has 7 feet of water, quite fresh. My own well is 15 feet deep and has 3 to 4 feet of water. At high tide it has more, as the water rides on the tide, but it is quite fresh. Other wells are 3 to 6 feet deep. All are dug in coral rock and give excellent water. Some are only 50 yards from the sea and others well inland. We have no pumps and all wells are open; rough stones are built up to keep the sand, etc., from blowing in, or logs are laid for the same purpose."

Evidently the water, draining over the clays of the interior, passes into the porous coral rock. The flow towards the sea being continuous, sufficient time is not allowed for the sea-water to penetrate inland even at high tide to cause the contamination of the well waters, although at such short distances from the sea-shore. The only effect is to cause a rise in the water-level near the coast as the tide flows.

Along the coast of Sawi Bay, a soft shelly sandstone, and argillaceous sandstone, with bands containing numerous recent lamelli-branch shells, notably *Pecten* types, occur as low cliffs. The strata dip eastwards at about 7°. A short distance further south the grey Nicobar clays come in below, and form the only type of rock exposures further south along the coast. The dip of the beds, where first visible, is at 20° in an easterly direction, but this increases as we continue along the coast, being as high as 55° near the angle of the bay.

2. *Chaura Island*.—In the cliffs of the south-eastern part of Chaura Island the light-grey Nicobar clays are well-exposed. The low-lying eastern portion of the island is however composed largely of raised coral rock, about 6 to 8 feet above high-water mark. Numerous boulders of coral, partly hidden by fine sand, occur inland.

The clays of Chaura were apparently used by the natives of that island for pottery manufacture, of which they had the monopoly among the several islands of the vicinity. Now,

Pottery-making. however, clay appears to be brought from Terressa Island, about 7 miles distant, though the monopoly of the industry apparently remains with the Chaura inhabitants.

3. *Kamorta Island*.—The south-eastern portion of Kamorta Island was visited. In the cliffs of this promontory the grey Nicobar clays with intercalated bands of argillaceous sandstones and occasional pebblebeds, dip east-south-east at a low angle. The clays are well-exposed in the streams inland forming the rolling down country. They are mainly of light-grey and greenish types, though some are stained red. In one of the small valleys resting on the surface of the disintegrated clays, a thick-shelled specimen of *Voluta* was found. The fossil was water-worn and unidentifiable, but it appeared to have been derived from the clays.

The more inland parts of the island were not visited.

3. *Tilanchong and Batti Malv Islands*.—A large tract of the islands of Tilanchong and Batti Malv is composed of rocks belonging to the older Cretaceous group.

In Tilanchong Island these form a narrow irregular ridge running north-to-south and reaching a height of over 1,000 feet in Maharani Peak. To the north of Freshwater Bay, highly indurated green shales and quartzites crop out, dipping in a general easterly direction as steeply as 20° . These are seen dipping at a steeper angle further north and are associated with the red jasper rocks. Still further north less altered tuff-like sandstones, similar to some indurated Andaman types, outcrop.

Evidence of recent uplift along these coasts is seen in the coral boulders and recent shells of the vicinity of Freshwater Bay, but again, more pronouncedly in the cliff 25 feet

Evidence of recent changes of sea-level. high of cream-coloured honey-combed limestone very similar to that found at Hut Bay, Little Andaman Island; this occurs on the west coast near Novara Bay. A section of this limestone shows it to be similarly

largely comprised of *Lithothamnion* fragments and small nummulites. In the *Lithothamnion*, conceptacles of the type *L. suganum* are observed (Plate 15, fig. 2).

At Batti Malv a peridotite with bronzite is prominent among the basic intrusions.

4. *Great Nicobar, Pulo Milo, and Kondul Islands.*—The rocks of Pulo Milo and Kondul Islands consist largely of sandstones, comparable in lithology with those of Rutland Island and parts of the main Andaman Group. On the east of Pulo Milo these grey micaceous sandstones with intercalated shales dip steeply to the north-east. With the sandstones and shales of Kondul Island, thin lignite bands are intercalated.

Similar sandstones and shales are exposed in the extreme south of Great Nicobar Island, along the eastern shores of Galatea Bay. These again contain traces of carbonaceous material, and dip steeply to the east. Further north along the coast cliffs of light-green clays and argillaceous sandstones crop out. A trip was made up the Galatea River. The lower course of this river is lined with mangrove, and banks of recent alluvium occur for several miles.

Economic Geology of the Islands visited.

During the present survey several rumours were received concerning the occurrence of petroleum and of mica in the islands. Evidence of the former was no doubt the result of the misinterpretation of the phenomenon, met with in many parts of the islands, of an iridescence on the water of the more stagnant pools which occur on the sedimentaries. On examination, this was invariably found to be caused by a film of ferric oxide derived from the ferruginous matter of the sandstones and clays of the vicinity.

Concerning the presence of mica in Middle Andaman, several specimens were brought to my notice, but all had been mistaken for the mineral gypsum, associated with these Eocene sediments of the islands of the Andaman Group. There appears to be no prospect whatever, at least so far as Middle Andaman is concerned, that mica will be found.

The occurrence of coal has been mentioned previously. Those outcrops observed were of small thickness, and occurred, in at least one instance, as a lenticular pocket in the sandstones and clays.

Coal,

The possibility of workable deposits of chromite in the serpentine series was also noted by Tipper. As mentioned in this report

Chromite.

chromite was observed in several of the sections taken of these ultra-basic rocks, but no instance of its being in sufficient quantity to be of economic use was met with. It should however be mentioned, that a detailed study of these areas of intrusive peridotites was impossible in such a limited time, and also on account of the denseness of the vegetation.

The glassy serpentinous decomposition product, met with in the hills to the north of Beta-pur-dina, could probably be used for the manufacture of a talc-like powder, though its inaccessible position renders it at present valueless.

Some of the sandstones of Middle Andaman, notably those of the eastern part, would make fairly good building stones, though the

Building stones.

ashy varieties, on account of their rapid weathering and friability, are of little use for such purposes. The peridotites and serpentines of the island also present possibilities of being used as serviceable building material or as ornamental stones.

The clays of Ritchie's Archipelago and of the Nicobars could doubtless be made use of in the manufacture of bricks and pottery, whilst the coral rock, notably the raised coral

Use of the clays.

from which the saline material had been dissolved away, would provide lime for building purposes.

It thus appears that the rocks comprising the Andaman Group are not economically important from the mineral point of view.

Fertility of the soils.

Their chief value lies in the fertility of the soils which they produce. This is well evidenced in the luxuriance of the jungles and of the small cultivated tracts which already exist.

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PLATE 11.

A raised coral beach of the south end of Henry Lawrence Island, Ritchie's Archipelago.

PLATE 12.

Geological Map of Middle Andaman Island, Scale 1 inch to 4 miles.

PLATE 13.

Sandstone cliffs, west side of Little Andaman Island.

PLATE 14.

FIG. 1.—Ashy sandstone from the north of Middle Andaman Island.

FIG. 2.—Vesicular volcanic rock from Mt. Wood.

FIG. 3.—Basalt from the south of Middle Andaman Island.

FIG. 4.—Photograph of *Assilina granulosa*, magnified about 8 diameters.

PLATE 15.

FIG. 1.—Photomicrograph of section of late Tertiary limestone, showing *Lithothamnion* fragments including conceptacles of the *L. nummuliticum* type.

FIG. 2.—Photomicrograph of section of late Tertiary limestone, showing *Lithothamnion* thallus including conceptacles of the *L. suganum* type.

FIG. 3.—Photomicrograph of section of late Tertiary limestone, showing sections of *Lepidocyclinae*.

FIG. 4.—Photomicrograph of section of late Tertiary limestone, showing *Lepidocyclinae*, *Lithothamnion*, and *Nummulites* in section.

AN OCCURRENCE OF CRYPTOHALITE (AMMONIUM FLUOSILICATE). BY W. A. K. CHRISTIE, B.SC., PH. D., M. INST. M. M., *Chemist, Geological Survey of India.*

In 1925 Dr. L. L. Fermor discovered a peculiar white deposit on the ground at Bararee Colliery in the north-east section of Barari mouza ($23^{\circ} 42'$; $86^{\circ} 28'$) in the Jharia coalfield. It overlies No. 15 seam, about 120 feet north of No. 14 incline, which was sealed up in 1912 on account of fire. At the place of the occurrence the roof of No. 15 seam is said to be about 40 feet from the surface, the seam being overlain by carbonaceous shale, which is also to some extent combustible. A much weathered mica-peridotite dyke, some four or five feet wide, crops out in the neighbourhood, dipping about 60° W. White smoke was issuing alongside the dyke and earth had been thrown on the ground to smother the fire. The white deposit usually occurred as a coating on lumps of this earth. Arborescent crystals of sulphur were also found, and in places the temperature of the ground was sufficiently high for the sulphur to be molten. The white deposit proved to be cryptohalite, a mineral previously reported only from eruptions of Vesuvius. Although the occurrence at Barari has not been produced entirely by the processes of inorganic nature—the fire in the coal seam originally being the handiwork of man—it is perhaps sufficiently unusual to deserve a brief description.

Mr. R. G. M. Bathgate, the manager of the East Indian Coal Company, kindly had a quantity of the deposit collected. The material occurs in three forms. The most striking, although it is found but rarely and in tiny crystals, is in the form of a paddle-wheel with four transparent shining blades. More common are arborescent, translucent crystals with a vitreous lustre. The most usual form is an opaque, white mass with a mammillary surface.

The transparent crystals are shaped more or less like a dart with four barbs at right angles, the length being up to 1 mm. and the breadth of the barbs up to 0.2 mm. The edges are corroded and the angles are not measurable. The crystals are uniaxial, negative. The blades are each perpendicular to the optic axis and form an interpenetration twin, whose twinning axis is perpendicular to the optic one. The refractive indices are very low: $\omega_{na}=1.406_{\pm}001$ $\epsilon_{na}=1.391_{\pm}003$ (immersion method in mixtures of amyl alcohol

and methyl butyrate). The material was much too scanty for more than qualitative microchemical analysis.¹

It is easily soluble in water, corrodes glass when heated and sublimes without leaving a residue. Its solution in water gives a copious precipitate with potassium chloride and it evolves ammonia when treated with sodium hydroxide. The crystals are presumably the hexagonal form of ammonium fluosilicate prepared by C. Marignac² and B. Gossner.³ The habit is peculiar in that the direction of elongation of the crystals is at right angles to the optic axis.

The isotropic material from Barari is usually in arborescent form with the edges of the crystals corroded. It is translucent, with a vitreous lustre. The specific gravity of two optically pure pieces, determined in acetylene tetrabromide and xylol was 2.004 ($\frac{2}{3}\frac{2}{5}$). Its hardness is about 2.5. Its refractive index in sodium light is $1.369 \pm .001^4$ (immersion method in mixtures of acetone and methyl butyrate⁵). Sufficient material for analysis was carefully picked out under the microscope. Ammonia was determined by distillation with sodium hydroxide. Hydrofluosilicic acid was precipitated as potassium fluosilicate, and in the filtrate sulphate was thrown down as barium sulphate and thereafter fluoride as calcium fluoride.

NH ₄	20.43
SiF ₆	78.87
F	0.07
SO ₄	0.06
Cl	trace
Moisture	0.30
Insoluble in water	.	.	{	SiO ₂	.	.	0.10	
				Fe ₂ O ₃	.	.	0.05	
								99.88

The calculated percentages of NH and SiF, in (NH₄)₂ SiF₆ are 20.25 and 79.75.

¹ Most conveniently by F. Emich's capillary tube-centrifuge methods. c.f. *Mikro-chemisches Praktikum*. Munich (1924).

² *Ann. Chim., Sér. 3*, LX, (1860), 301.

³ *Zeits. f. Cryst.*, XXXVIII (1904), 149.

⁴ H. Topsøe and C. Christiansen (*Kjøbenhavn, Dansk. Vid. Selsk. Skr.*, IX (1873), (613) found 1.3696 for the pure salt.

⁵ When using volatile liquids it is convenient to have the substance in a very small stoppered bottle with plane faces, such as is used for absorption spectra work. This is completely filled with the mixture, so that no change in its concentration can occur during the determination.

The presence of ammonium fluosilicate in a sublimate from the eruption of Vesuvius in 1850 was deduced by A. Scacci¹ from an analysis of material consisting mainly of ammonium chloride. He named the mineral "criptoalite" as it was hidden in sal ammoniac. The determination was qualitatively confirmed by F. Zambonini,² who isolated the mineral, showed that it was isotropic and determined its specific gravity (between 1.90 and 2.08).

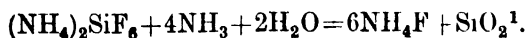
The commonest mode of occurrence of ammonium fluosilicate at Barari is as irregularly shaped lumps, usually with a mammillary surface, white, opaque, with a hardness of about 1. This consists of a mixture of the salt with silica. Analysis of picked specimens showed 10.24 per cent. of free silica and 17.98 per cent. of ammonium, corresponding fairly closely with the amount (18.17 per cent.) which should be present were the remainder of the substance pure ammonium fluosilicate. It seems amorphous, but, considering its composition, its apparent lack of crystalline structure may be illusory.

The fluorine of the cryptohalite comes presumably from apatite in the mica-peridotite dyke, through which the gases from the burning coal seam pass. A specimen, kindly supplied by Mr. Bathgate from a dyke in the interior of the mine, contained fluorine in abundance. The decomposing agent may be sulphur dioxide (the coal contains sulphur and sublimed sulphur accompanies the cryptohalite). Fluorite is easily decomposed by sulphur dioxide, apatite with more difficulty. Powdered fluor-apatite was heated to about 800°C in the middle of a long platinum tube shaped like a "churchwarden" pipe, immediately over the bowl of which was a flask in which water circulated. A current of moist sulphur dioxide was passed through the tube. In two hours sufficient hydrofluoric acid had been evolved to etch distinctly characters written on the waxed bottom of the flask. Silicates are of course present in profusion in the dyke, so that silicon fluoride would be available for the formation of ammonium fluosilicate from ammonia derived from the coal. Ammonium fluosilicate sublimes unchanged and in the presence of a slight excess

¹ *Napoli, Acc. Atti*, VI (1875), 35-37. Figures 12 and 15, attached to this paper, illustrating a frequent habit of small crystals of sal ammoniac from the lava of 1868, are rather like the interpenetration twins of cryptohalite described above (p. 233), and Scacci had difficulty in interpreting them as cubic. The sublimate of 1868 are reported by him to contain fluorine more frequently than those of 1850. Such crystals are unfortunately absent in the specimen of sal ammoniac, from the eruption of 1868, in the collection of the Geological Survey of India.

² *Napoli, Acc. Atti*, Ser. 2, XIV (1910). No. 6, 53-54.

of ammonia, might produce the opaque, white nodules of cryptohalite and silica which form the greater part of the deposit.



The isotropic and nearly pure cryptohalite is usually found growing out of these impure nodules and has probably been formed by recrystallisation from solution in rain. The formation of the arborescent isotropic crystals can be successfully imitated by repeatedly moistening a nodule and allowing the water to evaporate. The uniaxial crystals were probably also formed by recrystallisation from aqueous solution. When some of the isotropic material was dissolved in water and allowed to recrystallise at 25°C. several small uniaxial negative crystals formed round the edges of the dish, the rest of the material crystallising with a cubic habit. The two forms can crystallise together; C. Marignac² obtained both on evaporating a pure solution of ammonium fluosilicate.

¹ According to this equation one might expect a large percentage of ammonium fluoride in these nodules (there being over 10 per cent. of free silica), whereas the amount of fluorine present as fluoride is a small fraction of 1 per cent. The ammonium fluoride, however, may have been eliminated at the time of its formation, as it sublimes at a much lower temperature than ammonium fluo-silicate.

² *Ann. Chim.*, Sér. 3, LX (1860), 301.

REMARKS ON CARTER'S GENUS *CONULITES-DICTYOCONOIDES*
NUTTALL WITH DESCRIPTIONS OF SOME NEW SPECIES
FROM THE EOCENE OF NORTH-WEST INDIA. By
MAJOR L. M. DAVIES, R.A., F.G.S. (With Plates 16
to 20.)

Introduction.

In 1861 Carter created the genus *Conulites*¹ to receive certain Foraminifera, sent to him by Dr. Cook² from India, which could not in his opinion be included in the genus *Orbitolina* (d'Orbigny, 1847).³ He seems also to have taken it for granted that these forms could not be included in Williamson's genus *Patellina* (1858),⁴ which had been created to describe certain recent Foraminifera of Great Britain.

In 1862, however, Carpenter collected these three genera into one, adopting Williamson's name *Patellina* for the whole.⁵ In my opinion this was unfortunate. It seems to me that the differences between these three types are far too great to be thus regarded as merely specific, and Carpenter made a mistake in abolishing two of the three original genera. Nevertheless, as he still retained the original generic distinctions in the form of specific ones, it was at least still possible to indicate the *structure* of new forms by describing them as "varieties" of one or another of Carpenter's three "species".

Later on, however, it was emphasised that certain forms within this broadened "*Patellina*" group had arenaceous or sub-arenaceous

¹ "Further Observations on the Structure of Foraminifera, and on the larger Fossilised Forms of Scinde, &c., including a new Genus and Species," by H. J. Carter, F.R.S. (*Annals and Magazine of Natural History*, 3rd Series, Vol. VIII, pages 309, 331, 457-458 and Pl. XV, fig. 7.)

² Dr. Cook, of the Bombay Army, had been Medical Officer to the British Agency at Kelat.

³ In his *Cours Élémentaire de Palaeontologie*, 1851, pages 193-194, d'Orbigny defines *Orbitolina* as "*Orbitolites à cotes inégaux: l'un, convexe, encroûte, à lignes concentriques; l'autre, concave, non-encroûte, montrant des loges nombreuses, par lignes obliques sur le cote, au pourtour.*" Further examination of his geno-syntypes has shown that this definition has to be amplified, as, e.g., was done by Carter.

⁴ Ray Society. *On the Recent Foraminifera of Great Britain*, pages 46-47, and figs. 86-89 (reproduced as Fig. 11 below). By Wm. C. Williamson, F.R.S.

⁵ Ray Society. *Introduction to the Study of the Foraminifera*, pages 229-235 Plate XIII, figs. 16, 17, and figs. XXXVII and XXXVIII (reproduced as Figs. 12, 10, and 9 below). By Wm. B. Carpenter, M.D., F.R.S.

ous tests, while others were purely calcareous; so as Carpenter had already minimised the importance of the structural distinctions by reducing them from generic to merely specific grade, the way was opened for what appears to be an undue emphasis laid upon the chemical *composition* of the test, to the ignoring of physical *structure*. As things are at present, the essential differences of structure, which three distinct genera were originally created to express, are often overlooked in favour of the importance attached to slight differences in the chemical composition of the tests.¹ Nor is this all, for the impossibility of retaining all these types within a single genus has led to re-subdivisions of the group being made, and we find that old generic names are now apt to reappear in impossible connections. Thus Chapman first described certain new forms, which he found near Cairo, as "*Patellina aegyptiensis*";² but afterwards, apparently because he found them to be sub-arc-naceous, he referred to them as "*Conulites aegyptiensis*"³. And yet his own photographs of the form⁴ show that it can be neither the one nor the other (in the original senses of those genera) since it has the subdivided cortical chambers found among the *Orbitolinæ* alone.⁵ Chapman's formal definition of "*Conulites*", too, would actually exclude the very species (*cooki*) which the genus "*Conulites*" was originally created to accommodate.⁶ This seems to be

¹ Thus Chapman actually puts into entirely different families (Lituolidae and Rotaliidae) forms which he admits "represent the same morphological species of organism" (*The Foraminifera*, cf. pp. 65—66 and 135). This seems to be manifestly wrong, and it is easier to believe that the composition of the test varied in closely allied forms, than that morphologically very similar types should be placed far apart on the mere grounds of the chemical composition of the test. Dr. Pilgrim has very kindly drawn my attention to the fact that (h. Schlumberger and H. Douvillé agree to this, in their paper "Sur Deux Foraminifères Éocènes" (*Bull. Soc., Géol. de France*, 4th Ser., V, 1905, pp. 291—304). They point out that the composition of the test should be treated as a secondary, not a primary character, since it appears to vary with the materials available to the organism for the construction of its supporting and protecting walls.

² *Geological Magazine*, Decade IV, Vol. VII, 1900, pages 3, 10-14, and Plate II, figs. 1—3.

³ *The Foraminifera*, 1902, p. 157. By F. Chapman, A.L.S., F.R.M.S.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 275, fig. 36; also the figures in the *Geological Magazine*. In the latter (p. 12) Chapman himself noted that *aegyptiensis* had subdivided cortical chambers, while *cooki* had not.

⁵ Or *Orbitolininae*, since I am using the term *Orbitolinæ* throughout my article above as representing the sub-family rather than the genus. Chapman's *aegyptiensis* is now commonly regarded as belonging to Blankenhorn's genus *Dictyoconus*, which belongs to the *Orbitolina* group.

⁶ *The Foraminifera*, p. 156.—157. It is strange that he makes the subdivision of its cortical chambers a generic feature of *Conulites*. Even Carpenter had been impressed by the absence of any such feature in *cooki* (op. cit., p. 234).

manifestly wrong. If a generic name is to be retained, it should surely be either in order to express the characters which it was originally created to express, or at least to express some other characters peculiar to the specimens for which the genus was created. The new definition of the genus should not exclude its own original type-form.

Finally Zittel (1913) recognises the old genus *Orbitolina*, whose structure he describes very clearly :¹ but he unfortunately makes the siliceous composition of the test a feature not only of the genus but of the sub-family, and gives no indication as to how those forms are to be placed which exhibit an identical structure in a calcareous test. He somewhat significantly removes Williamson's *Patellina* into an entirely different family,² but so defines it that it cannot possibly continue to include Carter's *Conulites*. So, as he apparently makes no other provision for the original *Conulites*, but seems to ignore it altogether, members of that type seem to be excluded from his system; or, at least, they find no clearly recognisable position in it.

The trouble seems to be, so far as the genus *Conulites* is concerned, that representatives of it do not appear to be found outside of India in the same way that representatives of the other two great genera (or families) are; so that while European geologists are kept constantly alive to the necessity for providing in their classifications for *Orbitolinae* and *Patellinae*, the distinct existence of *Conulites* has been lost sight of, ever since Carpenter minimised its right to separate recognition. Yet the genus is very well represented in India, by several species, one of which is found in great numbers over a large geographical area. It seems necessary, therefore, that students of Indian geology should take serious note of the existence of this genus; and that cannot be done better than by reviving, with slight modification, Carter's original description of it.

Description of Genus.

Test calcareous and finely tubulated. Form conical, with base varying from concave to convex. The upper surface shows a superficial skin, thickest in the middle and thinning to the sides, traversed

¹ *Palaeontology*, Vol. I, 1913, p. 27 and fig. 12.

² *Ibid*, p. 33.

by short pillars, Below this lies a single layer of large and deep cortical chambers, rhomboidal in plan, not subdivided by any system of subsidiary partitions, and arranged in a spiral row, with generally a number of intercalary rows appearing between the whorls of the original one. The umbilical area is filled with small secondary chambers, disposed in layers parallel to the base, and traversed by numerous vertical pillars analogous to those of the superficial skin.

Thus defined, it is seen that the genus is a very well marked one, and easily distinguished from the types, *Patellina* and *Orbitolina*, with which it has so often been confused, but neither of which is adapted to receive it.¹ The following representatives of this genus appear on the North-West Frontier of India :

Conulites kohaticus, n. sp.

Figs. 1 to 5 (c).

General Remarks.—This form has now been found by me in great numbers, from the Jowaki border, 6 miles east of Kohat, to Thal, 60 miles west; in many places (notably Bahadur Khel) between Kohat and Latambar, 50 miles south; near Saidgi, 15 miles west of Bunnū; and on the Harnai-Spintangi line in Baluchistan; in other words, over an area more than 60 miles broad by 300 deep. The actual distribution appears to be even more extensive. Thus Wynne, when describing the beds at Bahadur Khel,² says that the section there “contains the large thin *rotalinac* so characteristic of the “Subathu” nummulitic bands in the Potwar”; and it seems to me (since I know the Bahadur Khel section very well) that he can only be referring to this form. There is no other there that would answer to this description; and he could not have failed to notice this one, which he does not otherwise mention.

¹ In their paper, mentioned in the first note on p. 238, Schlumberger and Douvillé show that Carter's *Conulites*, as represented by *cooki*, cannot be affiliated with *aegyptiensis*. They point out that *cooki* exhibits affinities both with *Aasilines* and *Orbitoides*, and suggest that the genus *Conulites* should be studied afresh. That is what I have tried to do here, showing how both the structure and the ontogeny of the genus indicate its true association with *Nummulites* and *Orbitoides*. The remarkable thing to my mind is that Schlumberger and Douvillé should have anticipated this finding on the very little material at their disposal.

² *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XI, Pt. 2, page 139,

But in that case this form must also be found in Nummulitic rocks nearly 100 miles east of Kohat. Besides this, I have found numerous specimens of this identical species in the collections of the Geological Survey at Calcutta, which are registered as having been found in Lower Sind, at such places as the Dharan Pass, Maliri Landi, Ranikot, Trak Hill, Sumbuk Hill, the Habb River, etc.¹ Thus the form seems to have been collected almost wherever Eocene rocks have been found on the N. W. Frontier, over an area more than 150 miles broad by 600 deep.

Description of Species.—The form is that of a depressed cone, the upper surface being convex with central boss, while the lower surface is generally concave. Variations in shape are generally to be seen at the outer margin of the test, which is sometimes thin and inclined downwards, sometimes thick and recurved upwards, with many gradations in between.

Both surfaces are granulated. On the upper surface the granulations are large, globular, and close-packed in the region of the central boss, but diminish in size the further they are removed from it, elongating themselves radially, and assuming a spiral arrangement round the centre, following the course of the cortical chambers beneath. Finally, towards the outer margin of the test, the granulations disappear, and the underlying spiral rows of cortical chambers begin to show through the upper skin, which there becomes very thin.

This upper skin is often found to be weathered away, especially at the margin where thinnest, and the spiral arrangement of the underlying chambers is then seen very clearly. This spiral may either be right- or left-handed (*cf.*, Figs. 3 and 4). If any one row of chambers be traced backwards from the outer margin, it will be found that, on completing the whorl, some 8 or more other rows intervene between its two representatives. This shows that, towards the end, there are about 9 or 10 rows of chambers moving round in a combined group. Carter only figures one such intercalary row of chambers appearing in the cortical spire of *cooki* (*cf.* Fig. 9), and states that even this is exceptional, the spire in that species being "generally single throughout"; so *kohaticus* appears to be

¹ These are, respectively, specimens Nos. G. 280/66; G. 309/99; G. 226/137; G. 280/59*; G. 226/139; and Habb River No. 4. Other specimens of the same type from the same general area are Nos. G. 373/8; G. 280/100; and G. 226/127. I am indebted to Mr. P. N. Mukerjee for helping me to find these specimens.

very distinct in this respect¹. The cortical chambers of *kohaticus* are almost square in plan, the septa being only very slightly inclined forwards, and spaced at intervals only slightly exceeding their own length. There are about 100 chambers to the outer whorl in an adult specimen. The primordial chamber appears to be spherical, but I have not yet been able to find it clearly exposed, nor to detect dimorphism.

On the lower or concave side of the test the granulations are globular, uniform, and close-packed over the whole surface. The last chambers of the cortical series are sometimes seen (in the case of specimens with narrow and turned-down edges) at the outer margin of this surface.

An axial section of the test [Figs. 5 to 5 (b)] shows a single layer of deep, rather claw-shaped chambers, blunt on top and pointed below, underlying the convex upper surface. These chambers are covered by the skin, already described, thickest at the central boss and thinning to the sides. Passing vertically upwards through this skin are a number of small pillars [faintly discernible in Fig. 5 (a)], the ends of which appear to provide the granulations at the upper surface. Below the layer of large cortical chambers, and filling the hollow cone formed by the same, is a mass of much smaller chambers, apparently disposed in horizontal layers between the claw-like points of the cortical chambers. These secondary chambers are traversed by numerous vertical pillars analogous to those of the upper surface, but much more distinctly seen owing to their greater length, and much more crowded owing to their emergence from a concave surface. These pillars are somewhat conical in shape, being pointed on top and thickening as they descend; they do not always reach the lower surface, but are replaced by others if they fail to do so. The granulations on the lower surface of the test represent the rounded ends of these pillars as they emerge at that surface.

¹ A specimen with worn central boss [Figs. 4 and 4(a)] shows two intercalary rows of chambers appearing before the primary row has even completed two whorls; that is to say, within the first $\frac{1}{4}$ th part of the radius of the adult test. Owing to the rate at which intercalary rows appear, the "twist" of the primary row rapidly opens out; so that, although the row itself does not widen appreciably in this species (it does widen in others), there are only about 4 or 5 whorls altogether. Thus, in one specimen examined, the first whorl was apparently represented by the first lateral chamber in the radius, the second by the next 3, the third by the following 10, and the fourth and last by the outer 11. It seems from this that new intercalary rows were more freely developed in early than in later life.

A horizontal section of the test [Fig. 5 (c)] shows the large rectangular chambers of the cortical series in plan, at its outer margin, while many small dark circles in its central portion seem to represent the sections of the vertical columns above described. It will be noticed that, whether seen in vertical or cross section, the large cortical chambers appear to be simple, without any such system of secondary internal partitions as exists in the genus *Orbitolina*.¹

Distinction, and Stratigraphic Horizon.—The above species thus possesses all the main characteristics of the original genus *Conulites*. These, as described or figured by Carter, are:—(a) Conical shape; (b) Superficial granulated skin, thickest at the apex and thinning to the sides; (c) A single layer of large and simple cortical chambers, deep in vertical section and rhomboidal in plan, arranged in a spiral which is apt to bifurcate, or display intercalary rows; (d) A mass of small secondary chambers arranged in layers parallel to the base and filling the umbilical part of the test; and (e) Numerous vertical pillars, pointed on top, which traverse the layers of secondary chambers, and form crowded granulations on the surface below.

It seems, therefore, that *kohalicus* is generically identifiable with *Conulites cooki*; but a specific identification cannot be so clearly established. Thus Carter represents *cooki* as possessing a relatively much higher test, a convex lower surface, relatively much larger cortical chambers, and few if any intercalary rows of such chambers. I was unable to check matters at Calcutta, since I could find no specimens, in the Geological Survey collections there, which were certified as identical with *Conulites cooki*.² Carter's original specimens of *cooki* were, according to Chapman, mounted on Slide No. 40 of the Carter Collection, and to be seen (in 1900) in the Geological Society's Museum.³ The collections in that Museum have, however, since been taken over by the British Museum; so I applied to the latter, for direct comparison of my specimens with Carter's

¹ I do not state the usual dimensions of this and other species here described, since such data can be obtained from the photographs at the end.

² Specimens in the collections at Calcutta are variously labelled "*Conulites*" or "*Patellina cooki*," etc., never *Conulites cooki*. As "*Conulites*" they were apparently regarded as distinct from *cooki*; as "*Patellinae*" they could not help being attributed to *cooki*, however much or constantly they might differ in details, since the generic characters themselves were reduced to specific grade.

³ According to Chapman (*Geol. Mag.*, as above, p. 12), the specimens of *cooki* on slide No. 40 were numbered 2 (from Kelat), 3 (from Sind), and 4 (from Arabia). This mention of a specimen from Arabia is interesting, as showing that the genus is not restricted to India; but as this is the only allusion I have yet seen to an extra-Indian discovery of the type, I will do no more at present than simply draw attention to it.

Slide 40. In reply, Dr. W. D. Lang writes as follows: "I have made a thorough search for Carter's Slide 40 in the Geological Society's Collection, which is now here, and cannot find it. Moreover, *Conulites* [*Patellina*] *cooki* is not mentioned in J. F. Blake's 'List of the Types and Figured Specimens recognized by C. D. Sherborn in the Collection of the Geological Society of London, verified and arranged with additions,' 1902. I suppose, therefore, that the slide was missing from the Geological Society's collection at that date..... So I am afraid that the type is lost, and only the figure is left on which to found an opinion."¹ It is possible, of course, that the slide may some day be found, but it does not seem very probable in view of Dr. Lang's remarks. So all we have at present, in regard to *cooki*, are Carter's figures and written description of it; and since these all seem to represent a form specifically quite distinct from the type here described, we must either regard the latter as a new species, or else impugn, without evidence, Carter's description of *cooki*. Assuming, then, that Carter's details are as accurate as his more general observations, I regard my own species as distinct, and propose to name it *kohaticus*, both from the region in which I first collected it in large numbers, and from the zone, "Kohat Shale," which it peculiarly characterises.

That zone is the highest one hitherto identified as belonging to the Laki stage, and corresponds to the lower portion of Mr. Pinfold's "Upper Chharat."² It immediately underlies the "Nummulite Shale," overlies the Ghazij Shale (or "Lower Chharat") and is well represented in many places west of the Indus, where it is generally found to contain great numbers of *kohaticus*, undoubtedly *in situ*. The Kohat Shale was apparently a marine shallow water formation, since it contains *Corbula*, *Ostrea*, and limbs of crabs, etc.; and it is noticeable that all trace of *Conulites*, seems to disappear in the Nummulite Shale above, where the abundant molluscs of the Kohat Shale are replaced by *Pycnodonta* [*Gryphaea*] cf. *vesicularis* which (i.e., *Pycnodonta*) indicates, according to H. Douvillé, deeper water than *Ostrea*.³

As I have elsewhere pointed out,⁴ there is reason to believe that the base of the Indian Khirthar (represented locally by the Num-

¹ Letter of 3/12/1924.

² *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XLIX, Pt. 3, pp. 137—160.

³ *Pal. Ind.*, N. S., Vol. V, Mem. 3, pp. 12—13.

⁴ "Notes on the Correlation of Pinfold's Chharat Series with the Eocene Stages of Sind and Europe" (*Trans. Mining and Geol. Institute of India*, Vol. XX, part 3).

mulite Shale) corresponds to the base of the Lutetian in Europe; so the Kohat Shale would represent an uppermost Ypresian horizon (the Laki, as a whole, representing the middle and upper Ypresian).

Conulites kohaticus var. *spintangiensis*, n. var.

Fig. 6.

Variations in size and form exist, even at Kohat, between representatives of *C. kohaticus*; and as one goes south one finds that a bigger and flatter form becomes the more normal type. This appearance of flatness is due to the thickening and turning upwards of the outer rim of the test. The change is apparent even at Bahadur Khel, in beds the exact counterpart of those at Kohat: and it is most noticeable of all at Spintangi, where very large forms (some up to 2 c.m. in diameter) are to be found.

As individuals of the southern type are found at Kohat, however, while individuals typical of Kohat are found even at Spintangi, with every grade in between at both places, I do not feel justified in creating a new species to define the more southern type,¹ but propose to class it as a variety, *spintangiensis*, of *kohaticus*.

Stratigraphic Horizon.—The Spintangi rocks are generally regarded as representing an Upper Khirthar horizon. If that is correct, then *Conulites* is undoubtedly found in the Upper Khirthar. Personally, however, after examining the Harnai-Spintangi area, I am very doubtful whether the accepted opinion can be right; I am inclined, for reasons which I cannot go into here, to regard the Spintangi rocks as probably just a special facies of the Upper Chharat (i.e., uppermost Laki and basal Khirthar). In any case, *Conulites* there appears among much the same associates as in the Kohat Shale, and has not yet been found by me in a deep water formation.

Conulites kohaticus, var. *blanfordi*, n. var.

Although many specimens of *Conulites* are to be seen in the collections of the Geological Survey at Calcutta, nearly all of them appear to conform either to the true *kohaticus* type or to its *spintangiensis* variety. There are, however, a few exceptions to this,

¹ I call it the "southern" type, since it is the more southern of the ones I have myself collected. It is noticeable, though, that the specimens from Lower Sind, still further south, often approximate to the normal *kohaticus* type rather than to the *spintangiensis* variety.

among which two specimens (numbered G.373/11) seem to represent a type sufficiently distinct to be separately described. An internal



X3
Section of G. 373/11.

section of one of these specimens, kindly made for me by Mr. Tipper, does indeed show the closest resemblance to the species *kohaticus*. The relative sizes of the cortical and secondary chambers are the same, as also the number of cortical chambers to the radius. There are, however, certain marked external differences which, being found in both specimens, appear to justify one in regarding them as belonging to a distinct variety of the species. Thus the test is relatively very high (diam. of base, 10 mm.; height, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 mm.), with distinctly pointed apex, straight sides, sharp margin, and slightly concave base. A singular feature about these specimens is the apparent absence of granulations on their convex surfaces, which are covered with a smooth or slightly corrugated skin. This absence of granulations on the upper surface might, indeed, be attributed to weathering, for a similar absence is occasionally seen on specimens of the normal *kohaticus*; but since both these specimens show it, while neither appears to be otherwise very weathered, it seems more likely that a smooth upper skin is a feature of the type. In that case, the great height of the test, together with the paucity of granulations on the convex side, may indicate a somewhat abnormal degree of specialisation in this variety.¹ I propose that it should be named after the well-known geologist who collected these two specimens.

Locality and horizon.—The specimens were collected by Mr. W. T. Blanford, in 1882, from the Eocene rocks just west of Mangrotah (Lat. $30^{\circ} 40'$ North; Long. $70^{\circ} 30'$ East), where such forms are said to be "numerous." The exact horizon is not at present known.

Conulites vredenburgi, n. sp.

Figs. 7 to 7(b).

Although the vast majority of *Conulites* that one sees along the N.-W. Frontier are clearly identifiable either with *kohaticus* or with its variety *spintangiensis*, yet I have in one spot found *in situ* a

¹ The development to the concave side being even more marked than usual, and that to the convex side even more neglected.

type of *Conulites* which does seem to differ specifically from *kohaticus*. It is a relatively small, flat form, with cortical chambers so large in proportion to the test as a whole, as to constitute in my opinion a specific difference in type. An adult of this species shows only about 15 cortical chambers to the radius, in axial section, as against 25 to 30 in *kohaticus* and *spintangiensis*, so that these chambers are altogether larger in proportion to the test as a whole. No gradations seem to exist between this type and *kohaticus*. I give sections of one of the largest and least flattened specimens found of this species, so that the proportions of its chambers and the shape of its test may be compared with the *kohaticus* type at a point where they approach it most closely. The spire has about 8 intercalary whorls.

Locality.—The species appears in certain limestone bands in a pocket of Eocene rocks, at a spot (Lat. $30^{\circ} 39\frac{1}{2}'$ North; Long. $67^{\circ} 54\frac{1}{2}'$ East) near Chrome Mine No. 136 at Hindu Bagh, in Baluchistan.

Horizon.—The existence of this pocket was recorded by Mr. Vredenburg some years ago, and its horizon registered by him as "Ghazij Shale." It is a marine, or estuarine, shallow-water formation, gypsiferous, with remains of *Ostrea*, *Cerithium chazari*, *Mactra dubia*, *Corbula*, *Natica*, etc.¹ As a Ghazij Shale formation, it would represent the horizon just below the Kohat Shale. I propose to name the species after the late Mr. Vredenburg, who first noticed this little pocket of Eocene rocks among the surrounding serpentine.

Conulites tipperi, n. sp.

Fig. 8.

In certain hand specimens of rock matrix, numbered G.280/77 in the collections at Calcutta, I found a third species of *Conulites*, very distinct from both of the foregoing. While it exhibits all the characters of the genus, it is remarkable by reason of its extremely small size (3 to 4 mm. diameter), its globular form, and its relatively

¹ Although containing an Eocene fauna, these beds are singularly devoid of all Nummulites, Assilines and Alveolines. The only other foraminifer which I have found in them, besides *vredenburgi*, is a small Orbitoline [s. lat., probably a *Dictyoconus*; shown in Figs. 13 to 13(b) below], of which both the megaspheric and microspheric forms are found in abundance. Chapman noted a similar strange absence of Nummulites (but not of Alveolines) in the beds containing *egyptiensis*. This suggests that the conditions which suited Orbitolines were inimical to Nummulites; and so the stunted appearance of *vredenburgi* may represent its adaptation to unfavourable circumstances.

enormous cortical chambers which never seem to exceed in number 6 or 7 at most, to the radius, in axial section. The base is generally almost as convex as the upper surface; and the granulations on it are noticeably largest in the middle, instead of being uniform as in the other two species. The spire appears to be single throughout, and increases rapidly in size as it nears the periphery; so that the outermost cortical chambers are about half as wide again, and two to three times as deep, as the innermost ones. This feature is seen to some extent in *C. vredenburgi*, but it is more noticeable in the species now described by reason of the still smaller number of whorls in the latter, which renders their increase more noticeably rapid. The vertical pillars are well seen, in axial section, traversing the secondary chambers of the lower surface; and analogous pillars are seen, more prominent in the centre than to the sides, rising from the cortical chambers to the upper surface. I propose to name the species after Mr. G. H. Tipper, Palæontologist of the Geological Survey, by whom my attention was first drawn to these rock specimens, and who has very kindly helped me in working on them.

Locality.—The specimens were collected at Petiani, 10 miles west of Kotri (or about 14 miles west of Hyderabad, Sind).

Horizon.—The area round Petiani was mapped by Mr. Vredenburg as Alveolina Limestone. The associated foraminifera in these hand specimens, being *N. ramondi* and *Assilina granulosa*, certainly prove the horizon to be a Laki one; but the apparent absence of Alveolines makes it seem very improbable that these forms could belong to the Alveolina Limestone. The rock itself is also a shaley limestone, quite unlike the normal Alveolina Limestone matrix. There is, on the other hand, no record of any Eocene rocks, *later* than the Alveolina Limestone being found in the vicinity; but the presence not far to the south, of a large exposure of Meting Shales, makes it seem possible that these specimens were collected from some lesser northern outcrops of the same, which were too minute to be registered on Mr. Vredenburg's small scale map. Thus the species would appear to belong either to the middle or (more probably) to the lower levels of the Laki.

Ontogeny, Structure, and Classification of Conulites.

It seems possible that, in the earliest stages of growth of *Conulites*, the form is similarly developed on both sides of the equator,

without the conical bias to one side which becomes so distinct shortly afterwards. This appears to be indicated (1) by the more or less horizontal arrangement of the first few cortical chambers, as seen in axial section; (2) by the central "boss" on the convex surface, implying a greater thickness of superficial skin produced in the earlier, than in the later, stages of development; (3) by the fact that the granulations of the upper surface are at first (*i.e.*, in the region of the central boss) very similar to those of the lower surface, but become progressively fainter in the later stages of growth; and (4) by the fact that the spire has just as often a left-handed twist as a right-handed one.

All these facts seem to suggest that there may be first at no bias to either side, but only some want of internal equilibrium which subsequently impels a development to one side or the other. If it were left to some accident of growth to determine to which side the cone should be developed, it would be easy to see why the spire should be sometimes left and sometimes right-handed, and also why *further* development of both skin and pillars on the rejected (or convex) side should be curtailed, once the bias was determined to the favoured (or concave) side. For the bias to one side, and the curtailment of development to the other, seem to be correlated.

It seems best, therefore, from the ontogeny of *Conulites* as well as from the main facts of its structure, to regard it as a very aberrant genus allied to some form like *Nummulites* or *Orbitoides* which exhibits a bi-polar arrangement of secondary chambers on either side of an equatorial layer of large ones. Thus the simple but large cortical chambers of *Conulites* may be compared with the comparatively large equatorial chambers of *Nummulites*; while the incrustation on the convex surface of *Conulites*, together with the umbilical chambers on the concave surface, both traversed by numerous conical pillars, might represent the lateral chambers traversed by conical pillars of many *Nummulites* and all *Orbitoides*. The calcareous and finely tubulated nature of the test in *Conulites* further agrees with this proposed association.¹

It is true, of course, that no close affinity can be claimed. Thus the rhomboidal form of the cortical chambers in *Conulites*, and their spiral arrangement, forbid too close an association with *Orbitoides*; while the same rhomboidal form of the chambers, and the tendency

¹ The tubulation of the test is best seen in Fig. 7 (b) below.

to develop numerous intercalary rows of chambers in the spire, emphasise its distinction from *Nummulites*. No doubt *Conulites* should be placed in a position parallel to those great genera, rather than in succession to either. Still, it appears to find its most natural place in the same family with them; so I suggest that it should, at present, be classed as the type-genus of a new sub-family CONULINIDAE of Zittel's family NUMMULITIDAE.

In conclusion I wish to say how indebted I am to Dr. Pascoe, Director of the Geological Survey of India, for many facilities freely given to study in the offices, and refer to the library and collections of the Geological Survey in Calcutta; to Dr. Baini Prashad, Officiating Director of the Zoological Survey of India, and Dr. C. S. Fox and Mr. Watkinson of the Geological Survey, who have most kindly taken for me all the photographs of micro-sections here produced; to Mr. Tipper and Mr. Lahiri of the Geological Survey, for much advice and practical help; also to many other officers of both Surveys, for incidental assistance of all kinds constantly given.

This paper was written in June 1925, before it was known that anyone else was working on the same genus. Mr. W. L. F. Nuttall of Cambridge has, however, since this paper went to press, published a description of a species from the middle Khirthar which he identifies with Carter's *cooki*; and another species from the upper Ranikot, which he names *conditi*. Neither of these species is identifiable with the forms described here. Mr. Nuttall points out that Carter's name for the genus, *Conulites*, is preoccupied, and he substitutes for it the name *Dictyoconoides*. It should therefore be understood that all references to *Conulites* in the text refer to the genus now known as *Dictyoconoides* (Nuttall).

For Mr. Nuttall's papers, see—

"Two Species of Eocene Foraminifera from India," *Annals and Magazine of Natural History*, Ser. 9, vol. XVI, pp. 378—388, October 1925.

"The Larger Foraminifera of the Upper Ranikot Series (Lower Eocene) of Sind, India," *Geological Magazine*, Vol. LXIII, pp. 112—121, March 1926.

For Prof. H. Douville's remarks on the same, see—

"La Forme Conique chez les Foraminifères, et le genre *Dictyoconus* Nuttall," *Compte Rendu Sommaire des Séances de la Société Géologique de France*, 1er février 1926, p. 19.

No.	G. S. I. Reg. No.	
Plate 16 1 . . .	397 . . .	<i>Conulites kohaticus</i> . External view of unweathered test; convex surface. ($\times 6$).
2 . . .	399 . . .	The same specimen; concave surface. ($\times 6$).
3 . . .	390 . . .	External view of the upper surface of a weathered test, showing rows of cortical chambers. Note the right-handed twist of the spire. ($\times 6$).
4 . . .	398 . . .	Another specimen, with central boss removed, showing primary whorls. Note the left-handed twist of the spire. ($\times 6$).
4 (a)	Sketch of primary whorls in above, showing 2 intercalary rows of chambers.
Plate 17 5	Axial section of another specimen, showing cortical and umbilical chambers, with pillars traversing the latter. ($\times 6$).
5 (a) . . .	1202 . . .	As in 5, but further enlarged. Note structure of the central boss, formed by thickened supra-cortical skin with traversing pillars. ($\times 12$).
5 (b) . . .	1254 . . .	Another specimen much enlarged to show shape and simple character of cortical chambers. Note the conical pillars descending to form granulations on the lower surface. ($\times 30$).
5 (c) . . .	392 . . .	Horizontal section of a test. ($\times 24$).
6	<i>Conulites kohaticus</i> , var. <i>spintangiensis</i> . Axial section. ($\times 6$).
7	<i>Conulites vredenburgi</i> , Axial section. ($\times 6$).
7 (a) . . .	395 . . .	The same, further enlarged. ($\times 13$).

No.	G.S.I. Reg. No.	
7 (b)	396	The same, again enlarged. Note the perforations of the cortical chamber walls. ($\times 30$).
Plate 18 8	516	<i>Conulites tipperi</i> . Axial section. ($\times 20$).
9	3412	Carter's diagram of <i>Conulites cooki</i> , as reproduced by Carpenter under the generic name " <i>Patellina</i> ." For comparison with the specimens of <i>Conulites</i> figured above.
10	3414	Carter's diagram of <i>Orbitolina lenticularis</i> , as reproduced by Carpenter under the generic name " <i>Patellina</i> ." For comparison with <i>Conulites</i> . Note the subdivisions of the cortical chambers, and absence of pillars traversing the secondary chambers.
Plate 19 11	3413	Williamson's diagrams of <i>Patellina corrugata</i> . This being the form for which the genus <i>Patellina</i> was created, our ideas as to that genus must be based upon its characters. So note the apparent absence of all supra-cortical development of skin or granules; the irregular subdivisions of the cortical chambers, and their arrangement in semi-lunar strips; the confused filling of the umbilical cavity, and the total absence of all pillars traversing the same.
Plate 20 12	1264	Carpenter's diagrams of recent Australian forms also classed by him as <i>Patellinae</i> , although they again seem to represent a distinct genus. Whatever the affinities of this type may be, the cyclical arrangement of its cortical chambers, their great depth, and the massed granules in the centre of the base of the test, form a combination of characters which forbid generic identification with any other type here discussed.
13		An <i>Orbitoline</i> form (<i>Dictyoconus</i> ; megasclerophic generation) associated with <i>O. vredenburghi</i> near Hindu Bagh. ($\times 6$).

No. G.S.I. Reg. No.

- 13 (a) . 394 . . The same, further enlarged, for comparison with the *Conulites* type. Note the subdivisions of the cortical chambers, absence of supra-cortical skin, etc., and absence of all pillars through the umbilical region. ($\times 30$).
- 13 (b) . 1257 . . Cross section of the same species, for comparison with 5 (c). Note the subdivisions of the cortical chambers, and their cyclical instead of spiral disposition as shown by the appearance of only one whorl in this section. ($\times 30$).

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RECORDS OF THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

Part 3.]	1926.	[September.
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THE MINERAL PRODUCTION OF INDIA DURING 1925. BY
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F.G.S., F.A.S.B., *Director, Geological Survey of India.*

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I.—INTRODUCTION.

THE method of classification adopted in the first Review of Mineral Production published in these Records (Vol. XXXII), although admittedly not entirely satisfactory, is still the best that can be devised under present conditions. As the methods of collecting the returns become more precise and the machinery employed for the purpose more efficient, the number of minerals included in Class I—for which approximately trustworthy annual returns are available—increases, and it is hoped that the minerals of Class II—for which regularly recurring and full particulars cannot be procured—will in time be reduced to a very small number. In the case of minerals still exploited chiefly by primitive Indian methods, and thus forming the basis of an industry carried on by a large number of persons, each working independently and on a very small scale, the collection of reliable statistics is impossible, but the total error from year to year is not improbably approximately constant and the figures obtained may be accepted as a fairly reliable index to the general trend of the industry. In the case of gold, the small indigenous alluvial industry contributes such an insignificant portion to the total outturn that any error from this source may be regarded as negligible.

The average value of the Indian rupee during the year 1925 was $1s. 6\frac{1}{3}d.$; the highest value reached was $1s. 6\frac{5}{8}d.$, and the lowest $1s. 5\frac{1}{8}d.$ The values shown in table 1 and all following tables of the present Review are given on the basis of $1s. 5\frac{1}{4}d.$ to the rupee for 1924 and $1s. 6\frac{1}{3}d.$ to the rupee for 1925, the latter value being taken for ease of calculation as equivalent to Rs. 13·3 to £1, instead of Rs. 13·310.

From Table 1 it will be seen that there has been an apparent decrease of nearly £1,121,000 or about 3·9 per cent. in the value of the total production over that of 1924. This decrease is minimised by a slight increase in the average exchange value of the rupee. An increase or decrease in value does not always correspond to a similar variation in output, and cannot, therefore, be regarded as an infallible indication of the state of an industry.

The number of mineral concessions granted during the year amounted to 859 against 769 in the preceding year; of these one was an exploring license, 737 were prospecting licenses and 121 were mining leases.

TABLE 1.—*Total Value of Minerals for which returns of production are available for the years 1924 and 1925.*

	1924 (£1 = Rs. 13-9).	1925 (£1 = Rs. 13-3)	Increase.	Decrease.	Variation per cent.
Coal	(a)10,766,433	9,503,828	..	1,262,605	-11.7
Petroleum	7,559,233	7,740,727	181,494	..	+2.4
Manganese (b)	2,719,949	2,617,220	..	102,729	-3.8
Gold	1,827,433	1,673,501	..	153,932	-8.4
Lead and lead-ore	1,694,679	1,666,726	..	27,953	-1.6
Building materials	733,117	853,851	120,734	..	+16.5
Mica (c)	679,796	799,483	119,687	..	+17.6
Silver	810,869	705,503	..	105,366	-12.9
Salt	700,717	574,628	..	126,089	-18.0
Iron-ore	279,610	336,775	57,165	..	+20.5
Tin and tin ore	(a) 208,179	267,931	59,752	..	+28.7
Copper-matte	114,714	262,297	147,583	..	+128.6
Zinc ore (c)	83,486	156,375	72,889	..	+87.3
Saltpetre (c)	201,382	147,617	..	53,765	26.7
Chromite	42,259	40,171	..	2,088	-4.9
Tungsten ore	24,559	33,975	9,416	..	+38.2
Magneto-ite	21,088	31,179	10,091	..	+47.8
Ruby, Sapphire and Spinel.	34,773	27,454	..	7,319	-21.0
Clays	25,178	21,795	..	3,383	-13.4
Jadeite (c)	50,849	12,237	..	38,612	-75.9
Stearite	4,977	9,750	4,773	..	+95.9
Bauxite	13,531	6,320	..	7,211	-53.3
Monazite	9,301	9,301	-100.0
Gypsum	5,527	5,810	283	..	+5.0
Zircon	2,717	4,608	1,891	..	+69.6
Kyanite	242	3,022	2,780
Ochre	4,800	2,784	..	2,016	-42.0
Alum	1,359	1,718	359	..	+26.4
Fuller's earth	1,153	1,615	462	..	+40.0
Barytes	2,255	1,328	..	927	-41.1
Diamonds	1,985	1,098	..	887	-44.7
Apatite	4,892	850	..	4,042	-82.6
Amber	1,101	710	..	391	-35.5
Ilmenite	1,381	492	..	889	-64.3
Asbestos	1,354	361	..	993	-73.3
Soda	96	171	75	..	+78.1
Antimony	26	26
Oil shale	15	15
Serpentine	5	8	3	..	+60.0
Copperas	1	1
Bismuth ore	17	17	..
Total	28,634,996	27,513,960	789,479	1,910,515	-3.9
			-1,121,036		

(a) Revised.

(b) Value f.o.b

(c) Export values

II.—MINERALS OF GROUP I.

Chromite.	Iron.	Manganese.	Ruby, Sapphire	Silver.
Coal.	Jadeite.	Mica.	and Spinel.	Tin.
Copper.	Lead.	Monazite.	Salt.	Tungsten.
Diamonds.	Magnesite.	Petroleum.	Saltpetre.	Zinc.
Gold.				

Chromite.

There was again a decrease in the production of chromite in India during 1925, amounting to 8,010 tons. For the greater part of this decrease the Zhob valley deposits were responsible. The total exports from India during the year amounted to 48,323 tons and exceeded the production; the latter was evidently supplemented from stocks accumulated in 1924. Chromite exported from the ports in British India amounted to 36,157 tons against 30,089 tons in 1924. Chromite mined in British India is also exported from the port of Mormugao in Portuguese India; the quantity exported during 1924 and 1925 was 1,699 tons and 12,166 tons respectively.

TABLE 2.—Quantity and value of Chromite produced in India during 1924 and 1925.

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value. (£1 = Rs. 13-9)		Quantity.	Value. (£1 = Rs. 13-3)	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
<i>Baluchistan—</i>						
Quetta-Pishin .	81	403	29	10	150	11
Zhob .	26,629	3,81,810	27,468	18,188	2,45,121	19,934
<i>Bihar and Orissa—</i>						
Singhbhum .	1,140	19,241	1,384	3,038	69,274	5,208
<i>Mysore State—</i>						
Hassan .	13,791	1,09,528	7,880	8,662	82,896	6,233
Kadur	1,900	15,200	1,143
Mysore .	3,821	76,420	5,498	5,654	1,01,639	7,642
Total .	45,462	5,87,102	42,259	37,452	5,34,280	40,171

Coal.

There was a decrease during the year of about 270,000 tons, or about 1·3 per cent., in the output of coal. This decrease was due chiefly to Bihar and Orissa and Bengal, partly to Central India and Assam, and to a small extent to Baluchistan and the Punjab. The production in the Central Provinces and Hyderabad shewed a substantial improvement, and that of Rajputana increased over 6,000 tons. The decrease in Bengal was from the Raniganj field,

and in Bihar and Orissa mostly from the Jharia field ; there was a substantial rise in the output from Bokaro which now produces over 7 per cent. of the Indian total. Giridih also increased her raisings by some 18,000 tons, while Jainti and Rampur continued to decline. An initial production from Karanpura of 13,354 tons is worthy of note. In Central India, Sohagpur failed to continue its rapid upward tendency and shewed a decline of some 15,000 tons. In the Central Provinces there were substantial increases in the cases of Ballarpur and Pench Valley, and a reduction in the case of Mohpani. For the increase in Hyderabad, Singareni was mainly responsible, but the Sasti field contributed an additional 13,000 tons. Amongst the Tertiary fields of Assam, Makum and, to a less extent, the Naga Hills were responsible for a deficit. In Baluchistan the Khost field continued to decline. The output from the Jhelum district of the Punjab declined, while the Bikanir field of Rajputana shewed improvement.

The total value of the coal produced in India decreased from Rs. 14,96,53,419 (£10,766,433) in 1924 to Rs. 12,64,00,908 (£9,503,828) in 1925.

There was a reduction in the pit's mouth value per ton of coal in all provinces except the Central Provinces (the figure for Burma is not available) ; this fall in value was severe in all cases except in Assam and Rajputana, where it amounted only to Rs. 0-2-10 and Rs. 0-2-2 respectively. In the two great coal provinces, Bihar and Orissa and Bengal, the price dropped Rs. 1-0-6 and Rs. 1-4-5 respectively. In Central India it fell Rs. 1-3-8 ; in the Punjab the fall was Rs. 0-8-0. The maximum fall, Rs. 2-13-5, was in Baluchistan, where, however, conditions are abnormal and coal supplies small.

TABLE 3.—*Average price (per ton) of Coal extracted from the Mines in each Province during the years 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.	1925.
	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
Assam	8 12 11	8 10 1
Baluchistan	15 14 2	13 0 9
Bengal	8 0 11	6 12 6
Bihar and Orissa	6 11 9	5 11 3
Burma	30 0 0	(a)
Central India	5 12 11	4 9 3
Central Provinces	6 1 5	6 3 2
Punjab	8 11 5	8 3 5
Rajputana	7 1 4	6 15 2

(a) Not available.

TABLE 4.—*Origin of Indian Coal raised during 1924 and 1925.*

	Average of last five years.	1924.	1925.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Gondwana Coalfields	18,960,913	(a) 20,696,338	20,447,898
Tertiary Coalfields	460,550	477,946	456,479
Total	19,421,463	21,174,284	20,904,377

(a) Revised.

TABLE 5.—*Provincial Production of Coal during the years 1924 and 1925.*

Province.	1924.	1925.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Assam	334,842	318,842	..	16,000
Baluchistan	40,557	34,797	..	5,760
Bengal.	5,031,655	4,913,852	..	117,803
Bihar and Orissa	(a)14,105,529	13,938,509	..	167,020
Burma.	255	25	..	230
Central India	235,298	219,106	..	16,192
Central Provinces	679,081	708,554	29,473	..
Hyderabad	644,775	667,877	23,102	..
Punjab	80,422	74,062	..	5,760
Rajputana	21,870	28,153	6,283	..
Total	21,174,284	20,904,377	58,858	328,765

(a) Revised.

TABLE 6.—*Output of Gondwana Coalfields for the years 1924 and 1925.*

Coalfields.	1924.		1925.	
	Tons.	Per cent. of Indian Total.	Tons.	Per cent. of Indian Total.
<i>Bengal, Bihar and Orissa—</i>				
Bokaro	1,343,500	6.34	1,494,966	7.15
Daltonganj	4,691	0.02	17,274	.08
Giridih	768,690	3.63	786,642	3.76
Jainti	78,547	0.38	76,680	.37
Jharia	10,845,642	51.22	10,676,883	51.08
Karanpura	13,354	.07
Rajmahal Hills	1,653	.01
Ramgarh	5,905	0.03	2,548	.01
Rampur (Raigarh-Hingir)	49,445	0.23	45,410	.22
Raniganj	6,035,347	28.51	5,729,686	27.42
Talehir	5,417	0.03	7,265	.04
<i>Central India—</i>				
Sohagpur	131,174	0.62	116,170	.55
Umaria	104,124	0.49	102,936	.49
<i>Central Provinces—</i>				
Ballarpur	127,545	0.60	150,490	.72
Hoshangabad	3
Mohpuri	76,526	0.36	70,039	.34
Pench Valley	473,896	2.24	485,768	2.30
Shahpur	1,111	..	1,119	.01
Yeotmal	1,138	.01
<i>Hyderabad—</i>				
Sasti	25,050	0.12	38,153	.18
Singareni	610,725	2.93	629,724	3.01
Total	(a) 20,696,338	97.75	20,447,698	97.82

(a) Revised.

TABLE 7.—Output of Tertiary Coalfields for the years 1924 and 1925.

	1924.		1925.	
	Tons.	Per cent. of Indian Total.	Tons.	Per cent. of Indian Total.
<i>Assam—</i>				
Khasi and Jaintia Hills .	280	} 1.58	845	} 1.52
Makum	274,479		262,959	
Naga Hills	60,083		55,038	
<i>Baluchistan—</i>				
Khost	25,678	} 0.19	17,085	} 0.17
Sor Range, Kalat, Mach .	14,879		17,712	
<i>Burma—</i>				
Kamapying (Mergui) .	255	0.00
Southern Shan States	(a) 25	0.00
<i>Punjab—</i>				
Jhelum	52,942	} 0.38	49,369	} 0.36
Mianwali	18,787		18,341	
Shahpur	8,693		6,952	
<i>Rajputana—</i>				
Bikanir	21,870	0.10	28,153	0.13
Total	477,946	2.25	456,479	2.18

(a) Despatched to England for analysis.

The export statistics for coal during 1925 again shew an increase amounting to some 10,000 tons, the total exports of coal and coke rising from 206,483 to 216,370 tons, 838 tons of the latter being coke (see Table 8). The imports also rose from 463,716 to 483,160 tons, the increase of about 19,400 tons being restricted to coal (see Table 9). As before the exports were mainly to Ceylon. The bulk of the imports still come from S. Africa though this figure is very much less than it was in the years 1921, 1922 and 1923; it, however, was some 11,100 tons greater than the figure for the previous year 1924. The imports from Portuguese East Africa fell to almost precisely the same extent as those from the Union of S. Africa rose. As in 1924 Portuguese East Africa still ranks second in the list of countries supplying India with coal, while the United Kingdom still comes third: imports from the latter rose to the extent of about 22,100 tons more than the figure for 1924.

TABLE 8.—*Exports of Indian Coal and Coke during the years 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).	
		Rs.	£		Rs.	£
To—	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
Ceylon	178,419	20,01,638	208,751	104,189	28,65,560	215,456
Straits Settlements (including Labuan).	17,638	2,99,345	21,536	19,034	3,27,218	24,603
Other Countries	9,461	1,89,046	13,600	2,309	38,384	2,886
TOTAL	205,518	33,90,029	243,887	215,532	32,31,162	242,945
Coke	965	29,069	2,091	838	21,329	1,603
Total of Coal and Coke	206,483	34,19,098	245,978	216,370	32,52,491	244,548

TABLE 9.—*Imports of Coal and Coke during the years 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·3)	
		Rs.	£		Rs.	£
From—	Tons	Rs.	£	Tons	Rs.	£
Australia and New Zealand	21,803	7,40,279	53,257	7,495	2,34,485	17,630
Portuguese East Africa	141,537	35,74,357	257,148	130,312	29,36,146	220,763
Union of South Africa	172,473	41,79,946	300,716	183,582	42,22,505	317,482
United Kingdom	89,785	31,11,064	223,817	111,898	29,65,309	222,856
Other Countries	5,310	1,40,981	10,143	17,053	3,97,402	29,879
TOTAL	430,917	1,17,46,627	845,081	450,340	1,07,55,847	808,710
Coke	32,799	13,16,628	94,721	32,820	10,41,218	78,287
Total of Coal and Coke	463,716	1,30,63,255	939,802	483,160	1,17,97,065	886,997

The average number of persons employed in the coalfields during the year shewed an appreciable decrease in excess of that required to account for the reduced production. The average output per person employed, therefore, showed an advance on the previous year, the figure of 103·7 tons for 1924 rising to 110·5 tons for 1925; this is not far short of the figure for 1919 which was 111·05 tons. There was again a gratifying reduction in the number of deaths by accident; these amounted to 202, a considerable improvement on the annual average for the quinquennium 1919-23 which was 274, and not due to smaller production. There was also a reduction in the death-rate which again fell from 1·34 per thousand persons employed in 1924 to 1·07 for 1925; the figure for 1923 was 1·81.

TABLE 10.—Average number of Persons Employed daily in the Indian Coalfields during the years 1924 and 1925.

	Number of persons employed daily.		Output per person employed in tons.	Number of deaths by accident.	Death-rate per 1,000 persons employed.
	1924.	1925.			
Assam	4,464	4,199	75.9	8	1.9
Baluchistan	1,108	951	36.6	1	1.1
Bengal	43,621	42,781	114.9	40	0.9
Bihar and Orissa	(a) 128,523	114,934	121.3	126	1.1
Burma	23	19	1.3
Central India	3,157	2,759	79.4	1	0.4
Central Provinces	8,125	9,174	77.2	9	0.9
Hyderabad	13,590	12,701	52.6	15	1.2
Punjab	1,575	1,579	47.3	2	1.3
Rajputana	120	165	170.6
Total	204,306	189,262	..	202	..
AVERAGE	110.5	..	1.07

(a) Revised.

Copper.

The suspension of the operations of the Cape Copper Co. in 1923, recorded previously, continued during 1925. In the Review for 1923, references were made to the results of the prospecting operations of the Cordoba Copper Co. on the Singhbhum Copper Belt. In 1924 this company was reconstructed as the Indian Copper Corporation, Ltd., with a capital of £225,000. This new company acquired not only the properties of the Cordoba Copper Co., but also those of the North Anantapur Gold Mines, Ltd., lying immediately to the north, and the property in Kharsawan prospected by the Ooregum Gold Mining Company of India, Ltd.

All work is at present being concentrated upon the Mosaboni area where a vertical depth of 385 feet has been reached and where 471,500 tons of ore of the average contents of 18,328.73 tons of copper had been developed by the end of December 1925. The erection of concentrating and smelting plant is shortly being started, and the production stage should soon be reached.

In Burma the production of 2,935 tons of copper-matte valued at Rs. 15,94,527 (£114,714) was reported by the Burma Corporation,

Ltd., in the Northern Shan States in 1924. The production rose to 8,029 tons valued at Rs. 34,88,552 (£262,297) during the year under review.

Diamonds.

There was a further decrease in the output of diamonds from Central India, which amounted to 47.63 carats, valued at Rs. 14,598 (£1,098), against 66.6 carats, valued at Rs. 27,596 (£1,985) in the preceding year.

Gold.

The recovery made by the gold mines in the Anantapur district of Madras in 1924 was unfortunately a temporary one only, for both the North Anantapur Gold Mines, Ltd. and the Jubital Gold Mines Ltd., have now suspended mining operations. The small output shown against Madras represents the amount recovered by cyanide treatment of mill tailings which have now been exhausted.

In spite of an increase of 935 oz. from the Kolar mines of Mysore, therefore, there was a total decrease in the Indian output amounting to 2,476 oz. In the Ooregum mine of the Kolar field which in August of this year had reached a depth of 6,379 feet, rock-bursts continue to give trouble, but recent development work has proved the rich nature of the lower levels of the mine down to the deepest point yet explored. An increase in the ore reserves of the Champion Reef mine has also been established; this mine, which has now reached a depth of 6,472 feet, also suffers from rock-bursts.

TABLE 11.—*Quantity and value of Gold produced in India during the years 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.			
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13 9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13 8).		Labour.
		Oz.	Rs. £		Oz.	Rs £	
<i>Burma—</i>							
Katha	25.58	1,441	104	19.7	1,265	95	30
Upper Chindwin	43.22	3,194	230	13.4	1,286	97	99
<i>Madras—</i>							
Anantapur	(a) 3,646.00	2,38,605	17,166	(a) 288.0	16,517	1,242	193
Mysore	(a) 392,578.18	2,51,54,948	1,809,708	(a) 393,512.8	2,22,36,295	1,671,901	19,847
Punjab	57.87	2,978	214	37.4	1,974	149	53
United Provinces	2.25	150	11	3.8	225	17	14
Total	396 851.10	2,54,91,316	1,827,431	393,875.1	2,22,57,562	1,673,501	19,736

(a) *Fine gold.*

Iron.

As previously shewn the production of iron ore in India shewed an increase of 28·6 per cent. in 1923, and an increase of 76 per cent. in 1924; in 1925 there was an increase over the previous year of 6·8 per cent., amounting to 93,265 tons. The figure shewn against the Mayurbhanj State in Table 12 represents the production by the Tata Iron and Steel Company, Ltd., whilst of that recorded against Singhbhum 227,722 tons were produced by the Indian Iron and Steel Company from their mines at Gua and the balance of 249,858 tons by the Bengal Iron Company..

TABLE 12.—Quantity and value of Iron-ore produced in India during the years 1924 and 1925.

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13 9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13 3).	
		Tons.	Rs.		Tons.	Rs.
<i>Bihar and Orissa—</i>						
Mayurbhanj	996,920	24,92,300	179,302	957,275	28,71,825	216,927
Sambalpur	654	4,578	330	703	4,920	370
Singhbhum	305,238	7,39,619	53,210	477,580	12,36,840	12,906
<i>Burma—</i>						
Mandalay	328	(a) 1,312	94	1,013	(a) 4,052	805
Northern Shan States	58,686	(a) 2,34,744	16,888	50,604	(a) 2,02,416	15,219
Central Provinces	68,361	3,73,702	26,885	1,037	4,182	314
Mysore	14,968	39,324	2,829	16,218	1,51,010	11,570
Other Provinces and States	168	1,001	72	148	866	65
Total	1,445,313	38,86,580	279,610	1,544,578	44,79,101	336,775

(a) Estimated.

Although the quantity of ore raised by Messrs. The Tata Iron and Steel Co. was 39,645 tons less in 1925 than it was in the previous year, the output of refined products at the Jamshedpur works shewed substantial increases in the case of pig iron and steel (including steel rails); the former rose from 540,140 tons in 1924 to 563,160 tons in 1925 and the latter from 218,472 tons in 1924 to 309,938 tons in 1925. Between the same periods there was a decrease in their production of ferro-manganese from 8,951 tons to 6,527 tons. The production of the Bengal Iron Co., Ltd., fell from 147,733 tons of pig-iron in 1924 to 52,674 tons in 1925, and from 27,045 tons of iron castings in 1924 to 5,911 tons in 1925; these deficiencies were in part compen-

sated by an output of sleepers and pipes during the year under review amounting to 29,327 tons. The Indian Iron and Steel Co., Ltd., again increased their production of pig-iron from 168,249 tons in 1924 to 247,500 tons in 1925. Neither the Bengal Iron Company nor the Indian Iron and Steel Company produced any ferromanganese.

The Mysore Iron Works commenced producing pig-iron in 1923 when the quantity manufactured amounted to 9,732 tons; in the next year the figure rose to 16,425 tons and during 1925 was 16,741 tons.

In 1925 211 indigenous furnaces were at work in the Central Provinces and Berar for the purpose of smelting iron ore, as compared with 229 in 1924; 103 of these were operating in the Bilaspur district, 68 in Raipur, 35 in Mandla, 4 in Saugor and 1 in Jubbulpore.

The output of iron ore in Burma is by the Burma Corporation, Limited, and is used as a flux in lead-smelting.

The total production of pig-iron in India again rose, therefore, from 872,547 tons in 1924 to 880,075 tons in 1925. Some of it was employed at Jamshedpur in the manufacture of steel, but a large proportion, as in past years, was exported. Table 13 will shew that exports increased to the extent of 40,663 tons, the United States, Germany and China being mainly responsible. It is interesting to note that the export value, which had fallen from Rs. 69·8 (£4·65) per ton in 1923-24 to Rs. 68·5 (£4·57) per ton in 1924-25, shewed a still greater fall in 1925-26 to Rs. 45·7 (£3·44) per ton.

TABLE 13.—*Exports of Pig-iron from India during 1924-25 and 1925-26.*

	1924-25.			1925-26.			
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13 9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·5).		
		Tons.	Rs.		£	Tons.	Rs.
To—							
United Kingdom . . .	119,024	13,20,823	95,023	20,178	9,33,916	70,219	
Germany	1,620	67,751	4,874	11,288	5,24,509	39,437	
Italy	4,552	3,13,708	22,569	4,225	1,97,487	14,849	
China including Hong-kong.	2,905	1,76,849	12,723	11,214	5,11,684	38,472	
Japan	1171,685	1,15,01,074	827,415	168,188	76,57,025	575,716	
United States of America	133,761	77,71,463	559,098	156,064	72,18,036	542,709	
Australia	201	13,052	940	401	18,519	1,393	
New Zealand	3,987	2,69,269	19,372	3,271	1,53,984	11,578	
Other Countries	8,311	2,47,705	17,820	7,160	3,35,044	25,191	
Total	341,596	2,16,81,694	1,559,834	381,969	1,75,50,204	1,319,664	

The Steel Industry (Protection) Act was passed in 1924 and authorised, to companies employing Indians, bounties, which were granted upon rails and fishplates wholly manufactured in British India from material wholly or mainly produced from Indian iron ore and complying with specifications approved by the Railway Board, and upon iron or steel railway wagons a substantial portion of the component parts of which had been manufactured in British India. This Act will expire on the 31st March 1927, but the question of the extension of protection is under the consideration of the Tariff Board.

Jadeite.

The fall in the output of Jadeite which commenced after the year 1922 has persisted, and the output, which in 1924 amounted to 2,630·4 cwts. valued at Rs. 8,60,493 (£61,906), decreased to 1,696·5 cwts. valued at Rs. 2,67,148 (£20,086) in 1925. The marked fall in the price was due to the outbreak of civil war in China which is the only important market for jadestone exported from Burma. The output figures are always incomplete and a more correct idea of the extent of the Burmese Jadeite industry is usually obtainable from the export figures. Exports by sea fell from 2,766 cwts. valued at Rs. 7,06,800 (£50,849) in 1924-25 to 972 cwts. valued at Rs. 1,62,751 (£12,237) in 1925-26. Exports from Burma by land in 1924-25 amounted to 212 cwts; those for 1925-26 are not known as the registration of the Land Frontier Trade of Burma has been discontinued.

Lead.

Although there was a further increase of 33,600 tons in the production of lead-ore at the Bawdwin mines of Burma the total amount of metal extracted decreased from 50,559 tons of lead and 1,200 tons of antimonial lead, valued at Rs. 2,35,07,040 (£1,691,154) in 1924 to 46,175 tons of lead and 1,100 tons of antimonial lead, valued at Rs. 2,21,07,128 (£1,662,190) in 1925. The quantity of silver extracted from Bawdwin ores also decreased from 5,287,711 oz. valued at Rs. 1,12,26,868 (£807,688) to 4,831,548 oz. valued at Rs. 93,36,580 (£701,998). The value, however, of the lead extracted increased slightly from Rs. 459 (£33·0) per ton in 1924 to Rs. 462 (£34·7) per ton in the year under review and that of silver decreased from Rs. 2-1-11½ (36·6*d.*) to Rs. 1-14-11 (34·9*d.*) per oz.

TABLE 14.—Production of Lead and Silver ore during 1924 and 1925.

	1924.						1925.					
	Quantity.			Value (£1 = Rs. 13-9).			Quantity.			Value (£1 = Rs. 13-3).		
	Lead-ore.	Lead-ore and Lead.		Silver.			Lead-ore.	Lead-ore and Lead.		Silver.		
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£	Rs.	£	Rs.	£
<i>Burma</i> —												
Northern Shan States	287,777	(a) 2,35,07,040	1,691,154	1,12,26,868	807,688	321,380	(c) 2,21,07,128	1,492,190	(d) 93,36,380	701,998		
Southern Shan States	2,509	49,000	3,525	445	59,525	4,471		
Yamethin	20	800	60		
Total	310,286	2,35,56,040	1,694,679	1,12,26,868	807,688	321,824	2,21,67,453	1,666,726	93,36,560	701,998		

(a) Value of 50,559 tons of lead (Rs. 2,32,00,868) and 1,200 tons of antimonial lead (Rs. 3,06,172) extracted.

(b) Value of 5,287,711 oz. of silver extracted.

(c) Value of 46,175 tons of lead (Rs. 2,18,21,219) and 1,100 tons of antimonial lead (Rs. 2,83,909) extracted.

(d) Value of 4,831,548 oz. of silver extracted.

Magnesite.

The magnesite industry in the Salem district of Madras, which revived in 1921, continues to flourish. During 1925 there was an increase in production of more than 5,000 tons over that of the preceding year; the total, 29,620 tons is the highest output yet recorded. The mines in Mysore were not worked in 1925.

TABLE 15.—*Quantity and value of Magnesite produced in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs. 13-9).		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs. 13-3).	
		Rs.	£		Rs.	£
Madras	Tons			Tons.		
Salem	24,427	2,93,124	21,088	29,620	4,14,680	31,179
Mysore	34	(a)	
Total	24,461	2,93,124	21,088	29,620	4,14,680	31,179

(a) Not available.

Manganese.

A rise in the output of manganese ore in India is again to be recorded, the total for 1924, 803,006 tons valued at £2,719,949 f. o. b. Indian ports, rising to 839,461 tons valued at £2,617,220, f. o. b. Indian ports, during the* year under consideration. The figure for output has only once been exceeded previously, viz., in 1907 when 902,291 tons were raised. It will be noticed that concurrent with a rise in output there was a fall in value, the total value for 1925 being £102,729 less than that for 1924. This was apparently due to a fall in price. In 1924 first grade ore c. i. f. United Kingdom ports fetched an average price of 22-9d. per unit; in 1925 this price fell to 21-5d. A fall in price was anticipated in view of the agreement between an American group of financiers and the Soviet Government for the development on modern lines of the manganese ores of the Caucasus.

In the case of the output from Bihar and Orissa the decreases in Gangpur and Singhbhum were balanced by an increase in Keonjhar. In the Bombay Presidency the Panch Mahals shew a substantial increase and Chhota Udepur shews a small decrease; a production from Belgaum, amounting to 3,604 tons, is recorded for the first time since 1916. After a break of several years Jhabua State in Central India had resumed production in 1924, and shews

an increase of nearly 1,000 tons in the year under review. The most important Indian manganese areas, *viz.*, those of the Central Provinces, exhibit an increase of over 38,000 tons, the decrease in Balaghat being more than compensated by increases in the cases of Nagpur, Bhandara and Chhindwara. In Madras, Bellary maintained its level, while an increase in the Sandur State output more than balanced a deficit in Vizagapatam. Mysore shews a fall in output due principally to the Shimoga district.

TABLE 16.—*Quantity and value of Manganese-ore produced in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.		1925.	
	Quantity.	Value f. o. b. at Indian ports.	Quantity.	Value f. o. b. at Indian ports.
	Tons.	£	Tons.	£
<i>Bihar and Orissa—</i>				
Gangpur	16,481	57,134	9,617	30,334
Keonjhar	20,803	54,434	26,330	66,264
Sambalpur	703	2,217
Singhbhum	797	2,764	195	615
<i>Bombay—</i>				
Chhota Udepur . . .	10,142	34,631	6,805	21,166
Belgaum	3,604	11,368
Panch Mahals . . .	46,401	160,857	52,069	164,234
<i>Central India—</i>				
Jhabua	2,263	6,299	3,206	8,576
<i>Central Provinces—</i>				
Balaghat	270,151	988,302	262,450	873,740
Bhandara	74,869	273,896	104,398	347,558
Chhindwara	32,715	119,682	37,109	123,542
Jubbulpore	1,850	6,768	1,901	6,329
Nagpur	204,521	748,206	216,484	720,711
<i>Madras—</i>				
Bellary	5,424	11,481	5,419	11,064
Kurnool	390	858	6	13
Sandur State	43,809	92,729	52,576	107,343
Vizagapatam	31,811	72,635	26,909	59,200
<i>Mysore—</i>				
Chitaldrug	1,556	3,423	2,494	5,289
Shimoga	36,206	79,653	24,572	52,113
Tumkur	2,817	6,197	2,614	5,544
Total	803,005	2,719,949	839,461	2,617,220

The exports of manganese ore, which during 1924 fell to the extent of about 100,000 tons, again decreased in 1925 by about 27,600 tons, as shewn in table 17. There is a steady consumption of manganese ore at the works of the three principal Indian iron and steel companies, not only for use in the steel furnaces of the Tata Iron & Steel Co., and the manufacture of ferro-manganese, but also for addition to the blast-furnace charge in the manufacture of pig-iron. The receipts of manganese ore at the iron and steel works during 1925 were 38,242 tons, nearly 11,000 tons more than the figure for 1924; the consumption in the industry was 34,843 tons, slightly less than it was in the previous year.

Table 18 shews the distribution of the manganese ore exported from British Indian ports (excluding the Portuguese port of Mormugao) during 1924 and 1925, from which it will be seen that the amount absorbed by the United States in 1925 dropped to a half of what it was in 1924. There was also a continued fall in the receipts of the United Kingdom. The marked increase in the quantity despatched to Germany is significant.

TABLE 17.—*Exports of Manganese-ore during 1924 and 1925, according to Ports of Shipment.*

Port.	1924.	1925.
	Tons.	Tons.
Bombay	279,024	311,825
Calcutta	342,067	264,170
Madras	36,600	28,203
Mormugao (Portuguese India)	108,758	134,653
Total	766,449	738,851

TABLE 18 — *Exports of Manganese-ore from British Indian Ports during the years 1924 and 1925.*

To	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value		Quantity.	Value	
		(\$1 = Rs. 13-9).			(\$1 = Rs. 13-3).	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.		£
United Kingdom	203,546	43,27,571	311,336	180,472	45,09,085	332,020
Germany	7,300	1,67,186	12,028	30,258	7,90,650	59,347
Belgium	189,197	50,85,837	365,888	175,334	47,56,421	357,626
France	148,150	33,92,325	244,088	150,585	36,93,370	277,697
Italy	8,242	3,32,688	23,934	16,875	8,36,808	62,918
United States of America.	98,094	31,78,095	228,640	49,164	12,85,750	104,192
Other Countries	3,162	1,15,162	8,285	1,510	60,187	4,525
Total	657,691	1,65,99,364	1,194,199	604,198	1,60,33,271	1,205,434

Mica.

There was again an increase, amounting to some 5,000 cwts., in the declared output of mica in 1925 above that of the previous year. As has been frequently pointed out, the output figures are incomplete, and a more accurate idea of the size of the industry is to be obtained from the export figures. In 1924 the export figures, in fact, exceeded the reported production by over 71 per cent., amounting to 70,095 cwts., valued at Rs. 94,49,168 (£679,796); in 1925 the quantity exported—99,699 cwts., valued at Rs. 1,06,33,123 (£799,483)—was more than double the reported production. The average price of the mica exported fell from Rs. 135 (£9·7) per cwt. in 1924 to Rs. 107 (£8·0) per cwt. in 1925, a price Rs. 10 more than that obtained in 1923.

TABLE 19.—*Quantity and value of Mica produced in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value		Quantity	Value	
		(£1 = Rs. 13·9).			(£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
	Cwts.	Rs.	£	Cwts.	Rs.	£
<i>Bihar and Orissa—</i>						
Bhagalpur	15	530	38
Gaya	5,274	2,56,496	18,453	3,631	1,80,811	13,595
Hazaribagh	23,205	11,74,060	84,464	25,606	12,67,380	95,292
Monghyr	242	18,514	1,332	473	37,675	2,833
<i>Delhi</i>	20	28	2
<i>Gwalior</i>	120	3,303	248
<i>Madras—</i>						
Nellore	10,90	4,97,307	35,778	14,378	5,91,390	44,465
Nilgiris	365	50,041	3,600	401	54,614	4,106
<i>Mysore—</i>						
Hassan	48·5	2,690	202
Mysore	15·2	(a)	(a)	114·7	7,390	556
<i>Rajputana—</i>						
Ajmer-Merwara	500	46,749	3,363	401·7	40,920	3,077
Shahpura	354·7	15,192	1,093	316·4	13,333	1,003
Total	40,907·9	20,58,917	148,123	45,990·3	21,99,516	165,377

(a) Not available.

Monazite.

The recovery in the monazite industry of Travancore reported in 1924, when the output rose to 622·3 tons, valued at £9,301·5, did not, unfortunately, continue. The reported production for 1925 was 1 cwt. only. During 1921 the figure reached 1,260 tons, valued at nearly £31,000.

Petroleum.

The world production of petroleum in 1925 exceeded that of any previous year, amounting to over 151½ million tons; of this India

contributed about 0·8 per cent. As remarked before petroleum statistics prove that it is becoming more and more difficult to maintain the output of India (including Burma) at the high level it reached in 1919 and 1921, when peak productions of well over 305½ million gallons were reached. During the year under consideration the total production amounted to over 289½ million gallons against about 294½ million gallons in 1924. There is now little doubt that this deficit of some 5 million gallons, small as it is forms part of the evidence that the inevitable decline has set in, and, with possible interruptions, is likely to continue slowly and steadily during the present generation, unless a new field of importance is discovered. The chances of the latter recede year by year as exhaustive geological research continues to prove fruitless. A conservative policy rather than one of intensive development seems indicated, especially in view of the national importance of this mineral asset. Owing to a rise in the average value of the rupee, the sterling value of the output for 1925 exceeded that for 1924 by £181,494.

As was to be expected the Yenangyaung field of Upper Burma is mainly responsible for the present decrease in output. In 1924 it succeeded in shewing an increase of nearly 6½ million gallons but this temporary arrest in the decline is more than balanced by the drop in 1925 of over 21½ million gallons. It is interesting to note that of the 160 million gallons produced in Yenangyaung no less than 2,433,657 gallons were derived from the old Burmese hand-dug wells. It is now seldom that a new well strikes a yield of over 100 barrels per initial twenty-four hours. The utilization of the shallow oil-sands of this field, which were shut off during the competitive rush for the richer deep sands, continues; several remunerative wells are now being worked at depths a little above or below 400 feet, but in spite of the fact that the fall in their yields is unexpectedly gradual, the effect in delaying the decline of the field may be looked upon as almost negligible. The electrification of the field, which reached its limit of practicability in 1924, has added and is adding an appreciable contribution to the production figure, owing to the saving of a considerable quantity of crude oil formerly used as fuel beneath rig boilers. Of the nine companies operating in this small field the Burmah Oil Company produce about four-fifths of the total. Of undrilled portions of the Yenangyaung field the northern areas are shewing more promise than the southern.

During the year there were 21 outbreaks of fire, from which no serious loss or damage to life or property resulted. Out of 25 accidents reported during 1925, 10 were fatal.

The place of Yenangyaung is being steadily taken by the Singu field, which in a few years will undoubtedly usurp the premier position so far held by the older field. Singu, the greater part of which is in the hands of the Burmah Oil Co., is used to make good the deficiencies of Yenangyaung, in order to maintain supplies to the refinery. Singu produced $15\frac{1}{2}$ million gallons more in 1925 than in 1924. Many wells are producing from the 3,000-foot sand and initial yields of 500 barrels and over are not uncommon. Steps are now being taken to electrify the Singu field.

The Yenangyat field has now reduced itself to the status of the Thayetmyo field and is outclassed by Minbu. Some deep tests are now being sunk in this field in the hope of reviving production. A scheme is under consideration by which the sandbank stretching southwards from the wells at Lanywa into the river Irrawaddy is to be protected by a revetted embankment. This, it is hoped, will enable a number of wells to be drilled by the Indo-Burma Petroleum Company on the sand-bank. As remarked in the Review of Mineral Production for 1920¹ the striking of remunerative supplies of oil at Lanywa makes it almost certain that the river Irrawaddy covers oil deposits of commercial size. The sand-bank which stretches from Lanywa to Sitpin is a more or less permanent feature, dry during the winter but covered by the floods of the rainy season. Large artificial mounds will probably have to be built to carry the derricks. Strictly speaking, the area belongs to the Singu dome area, but officially it will be looked upon as part of the Yenangyat field.

Of the other Burma fields, Minbu again shews a decline as also does Thayetmyo. The production from the Kindat area of the Upper Chindwin which had increased in 1924 fell a little in the year under review. The Arakan fields maintained their usual small output.

In Assam prospects are a little brighter. The Badarpur field, which had proved to be somewhat below expectations, increased its output by over 1 million gallons; further efforts in Lower Assam have raised hopes of an extension in development. The Digboi

¹ *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. LIII, p. 117.

field in Upper Assam again shewed a marked increase amounting to over $4\frac{1}{2}$ million gallons; careful geological investigations by the Assam Oil Company's staff arouse expectations of a successful expansion of this field.

In the Punjab there is less cause for satisfaction. The output from the Khaur field has again dropped, this time to the extent of $3\frac{1}{2}$ million gallons. The Burmah Oil Company have abandoned their test in the Khairpur State after exploring to the greatest depth at which any possibility of production was thought possible.

There was a slight fall in the imports of kerosene. Those from the United States were some 9,721,000 gallons less than they were in 1924, while the decrease in oil obtained from Georgia was not much less. Supplies from Borneo were doubled and there were marked increases in the case of Russia, the Straits Settlements, Sumatra and other countries.

The quantity of fuel oil imported into India during 1925 was, as Table 22 will shew, some $2\frac{1}{2}$ million gallons less than that received during the previous year. As before something like four-fifths of the supply is derived from Persia, and the greater part of the rest comes from Borneo.

The export of paraffin wax increased to the extent of 2,176 tons during 1925 (see Table 23).

TABLE 20.—*Quantity and value of Petroleum produced in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value		Quantity.	Value.	
		(£1 = Rs. 13·9).			(£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
	(Gals.	Rs.	£	Gals.	Rs.	£
Assam—						
Badarpur . . .	3,277,829	7,41,074	53,315	4,281,878	11,17,012	83,986
Digboi . . .	9,697,420	16,56,642	119,183	14,448,534	24,68,291	185,586
Burma—						
Akyab . . .	7,014	2,024	145	7,169	2,483	187
Kyaikpyu . . .	14,708	14,911	1,073	14,361	15,111	1,136
Minnu . . .	3,829,044	9,57,201	68,868	3,248,566	9,13,659	68,696
Singu . . .	79,938,430	2,99,76,911	2,150,612	95,262,519	3,57,23,445	2,685,973
Thaymyi . . .	1,717,653	5,36,767	38,616	1,320,009	3,71,253	27,914
Upper Chindwin.	1,474,898	1,10,617	7,958	1,385,977	1,03,948	7,816
Yenangyat . .	1,594,517	3,98,629	28,678	1,562,444	4,39,437	33,040
Yenangyaung .	181,636,739	6,78,32,646	4,880,046	160,027,885	5,97,85,227	4,495,130
Punjab—						
Attock . . .	11,383,240	28,45,810	204,735	8,047,200	20,11,800	151,263
Mianwali . . .	200	50	4
Total	294,571,692	10,50,73,342	7,559,233	289,606,549	10,29,51,666	7,740,727

TABLE 21.—*Imports of Kerosene during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
		Gals.	Rs.		Gals.	Rs.
From—			£			£
Borneo	7,355,960	36,48,433	262,477	14,867,813	78,89,050	593,161
Georgia	9,242,682	56,46,665	406,235	996,975	5,14,065	38,662
Russia	3,313,667	19,12,876	143,825
Straits Settlements (including Labuan).	1,310	735	53	2,353,802	16,32,683	122,758
Sumatra	1,148,962	7,36,087	55,270
United States of America.	55,206,946	3,75,05,896	2,698,266	45,485,437	3,13,73,754	2,358,929
Other Countries	677	1,286	92	2,198,407	17,04,787	128,180
Total	71,897,575	4,68,03,015	3,367,123	70,345,064	4,57,62,302	3,440,775

TABLE 22.—*Imports of Fuel Oils into India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
		Gals.	Rs.		Gals.	Rs.
From—			£			£
Persia	69,900,473	1,34,07,629	964,578	69,701,096	1,38,98,930	1,045,032
Straits Settlements (including Labuan).	2,136,538	7,35,360	52,904	2,243,702	6,94,045	52,184
Borneo	16,966,682	41,23,141	296,988	14,599,813	48,39,013	363,836
Other Countries	129,250	18,779	1,351	55,155	13,840	1,040
Total	89,132,952	1,82,89,909	1,315,821	86,599,766	1,94,45,828	1,462,092

TABLE 23.—*Exports of Paraffin Wax from India during 1924 and 1925.*

To—	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·5).	
		Tons.	Rs.		£	Tons.
Australia and New Zealand.	1,489	6,77,718	48,756	1,715	8,21,474	61,765
Belgium . . .	3,065	13,94,575	100,329	3,135	14,26,385	107,247
China . . .	2,141	9,34,908	67,259	3,369	17,51,645	131,70 ³
Japan . . .	4 387	19,96,070	143,002	315	1,43,525	10,791
Portuguese East Africa	2,040	9,28,200	66,777	2,835	12,89,925	96,987
Union of South Africa .	2,441	11,10,155	79,867	2,019	9,18,531	69,062
United Kingdom .	8,191	37,21,965	267,767	12,262	55,80,520	419,588
United States of America	625	2,84,318	20,455	915	4,18,600	31,471
Other Countries . .	5,028	23,28,909	167,549	5,018	22,69,282	170,623
Total .	29,407	1,33,76,818	962,361	31,583	1,46,19,887	1,099,240

Ruby, Sapphire and Spinel.

Although the severe decline in the output from the Mogok ruby mines of Upper Burma recorded in the preceding Review was not repeated in 1925, there was a marked drop in value which denotes a serious decline in the industry. Since the close of the year the mines have in fact closed down. The total weight of rubies mined in 1925 was more than twice that of the previous year, but the total value in 1925 was not much more than three-quarters of what it was in 1924. The average value per carat of the three stones taken together fell from Rs. 4·8 (£0·34) in 1924 to Rs. 2·4 (£0·18) in 1925.

TABLE 24.—*Quantity and value of Ruby, Sapphire and Spinel produced in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
		Rs.	£		Rs.	£
Purma	Carats.			Carats.		
	53,511 (Rubies)	4,22,240	30,377	109,998 (Rubies)	3,40,689	25,616
	37,942 (Sapphires)	57,556	4,141	31,508 (Sapphires)	20,616	1,550
	9,644 (Spinel)	3,544	255	7,531 (Spinel)	3,834	288
Total	101,097	4,83,340	34,773	149,037	3,65,139	27,454

Salt.

Again a decrease in the output of salt has to be recorded, amounting to over 328,000 tons, Bombay, Sind, Northern India and Madras all contributing to the fall as before; Aden again shewed an increase, amounting to some 9,300 tons.

TABLE 25.—*Quantity and value of Salt produced in India during the years 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
		Tons.	Rs.		£	Tons.
Aden	179,182	8,61,291	61,963	188,493	9,10,379	68,450
Bombay and Sind	538,777	29,35,188	211,165	381,419	20,43,490	153,646
Burma	20,557	2,63,586	18,963	22,880	3,23,116	24,294
Gwallor	151	8,230	592	141	7,388	556
Kashmir	(a)	152	11
Madras	407,544	27,32,822	196,606	336,605	21,06,161	158,358
Northern India	477,264	29,38,703	211,417	365,606	22,52,021	169,324
TOTAL	1,623,475	97,39,972	700,717	1,295,144	76,42,555	574,628

The total decrease includes a decrease in the output of rock-salt amounting to 38,857 tons.

TABLE 26.—*Quantity and Value of Rock-salt produced in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13-9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13-3)	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
Salt Range .	160 040	8 16,248	58,723	125,470	6,39,896	48,113
Kohat	24,485	78,801	5,669	19,971	63,951	4,808
Mandi	4,703	1,33,913	9,634	4,939	1,11,239	8,364
TOTAL .	189,237	10,28 962	74,026	150,380	8,15,086	61,285

There was a decrease of 54,525 tons in the imports of salts for which Aden and Egypt were chiefly responsible. The receipt from Italian East Africa and smaller contributors were also less, while imports from Germany and Spain shewed a large increase.

TABLE 27.—*Imports of Salt into India during the years 1924 and 1925.*

From—	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
		Tons.	Rs.		£	Tons.
United Kingdom	100,075	26,19,905	188,482	100,702	19,61,799	147,503
Germany	26,417	7,06,848	50,852	49,921	12,02,529	90,416
Spain	12,247	2,55,264	18,364	39,321	7,91,260	59,493
Aden and Dependencies	221,005	49,91,205	359,079	176,961	31,49,730	236,822
Egypt	154,123	35,62,448	256,291	113,085	21,20,211	159,414
Italian East Africa	63,557	13,62,107	97,993	45,183	7,50,524	56,430
Other Countries	18,242	3,98,993	28,705	15,968	2,71,061	20,381
Total	595,666	1,38,96,770	999,766	541,141	1,02,47,114	770,459

Saltpetre.

Owing to the withdrawal of restrictions on the manufacture of saline substances, reliable statistics of production are no longer available. Excepting some ten to twelve hundred tons required for internal consumption as fertilizer, almost the whole of the output is exported to foreign countries. The following table shows the distribution of saltpetre during the years 1924 and 1925.

TABLE 28.—*Distribution of Saltpetre exported from India during the years 1924 and 1925.*

To—	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
	Cwts.	Rs.	£	Cwts.	Rs.	£
Ceylon . . .	68,518	8,62,089	62,021	70,978	8,76,326	66,889
Hongkong . . .	35,597	7,97,507	57,375	21,356	4,72,040	35,492
Mauritius and Dependencies.	36,194	6,49,088	46,697	8,828	1,72,724	12,987
Straits Settlements (including Labuan).	4,705	1,08,102	7,783	4,652	90,743	6,823
United Kingdom .	15,988	2,30,014	16,548	16,962	2,36,172	17,757
Other Countries . .	6,008	1,52,323	10,958	4,197	1,15,296	8,609
Total .	167,700	27,99,213	201,382	126,973	19,63,301	147,617

Silver.

The production of silver from the Bawdwin mines of Upper Burma, which had increased to 5,287,711 oz. valued at Rs. 1,12,26,868 (£807,688) in 1924, fell to 4,831,548 oz. valued at Rs. 93,36,580 (£701,998), figures a little less than those for 1923. A further increase in the output of silver amounting to 3,610 oz. is reported from the Kolar gold mines of Mysore,

TABLE 29.—*Quantity and value of Silver produced in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13-9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13-3).	
		Oz.	Rs. £		Oz.	Rs. £
<i>Burma—</i>						
Northern Shan States	5,287,711	1,12,26,868	807,688	4,831,548	93,36,580	701,998
<i>Madras—</i>						
Anantapur .	249	493	35	21	38	3
<i>Mysore—</i>						
Kolar . . .	21,243 4	43,725	3,146	24,853 3	46,571	3,502
Total .	5,309,203 4	1,12,71,086	810,869	4,856,422 6	93,83,189	705,503

Tin.

According to the revised production figure for 1924, which is some 84 tons less than that published in the preceding review, there was a total increase of 428 tons of tin in 1925. The total production of 2,308 tons was derived from Burma, Tavoy contributing 72·8 per cent. and Mergui 26·9 per cent. There is no recorded output of block tin. The testing of a new part of the Amherst district, in the Kya-in township, will be watched with interest. Imports of unwrought tin increased considerably, the figure for 1925 being 6,785 cwts. greater than that for 1924 (*see* Table 31); 97 per cent. of these imports came from the Straits Settlements. The quantity of wrought tin imported into India amounted in 1925 to 1,385 cwts. valued at Rs. 2,61,638 (£19,672) against 3,768 cwts. valued at Rs. 1,71,636 (£12,348) in 1924.

TABLE 30.—*Quantity and value of Tin-ore produced in India during the years 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13'9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13'3).	
		Tons.	Rs.	Tons.	Rs.	£
<i>Burma—</i>						
Amherst . . .	37	5,606	403	2	3,800	286
Mergul . . .	(a) 439 1	8,21,982	59,135	621	10,47,511	78,760
Tavoy . . .	1,433'0	20,61,107	148,281	1,080	25,06,170	188,434
Thaton . . .	(a) 40	5,000	360	5	6,000	451
Total . . .	1,879 8	28,93,695	208,17⁴	2,308	35,63,481	267,931

(a) Revised.

TABLE 31.—*Imports of unwrought Tin (blocks, ingots, bars and slabs) into India during 1924 and 1925.*

From—	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13'9)		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13'3).	
		Cwts.	Rs.	Cwts.	Rs.	£
United Kingdom .	2,807	4,92,489	35,431	1,363	2,43,393	18,300
Straits Settlements (including Labuan).	45,301	72,89,478	524,423	53,607	91,76,670	689,975
Other Countries .	366	52,350	3,766	289	53,056	3,989
TOTAL . . .	48,474	78,34,317	563,620	55,259	94,73,119	712,264

Tungsten.

There was an increase of 33 tons in the production of wolfram, but this was still 100 tons short of the figure for 1923. The whole of the output was derived from Tavoy.

TABLE 32.—*Quantity and value of Tungsten-ore produced in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
<i>Burma—</i>						
Mergui . . .	0·3	91	6
Tavoy . . .	738·7	3,41,290	24,553	772·2	4,51,864	33,975
TOTAL .	739·0	3,41,381	24,559	772·2	4,51,864	33,975

Zinc.

16,810 tons of zinc concentrates were produced by the Burma Corporation Ltd., in the Northern Shan States during the year under review. The exports amounted to 20,967 tons valued at Rs. 20,79,794 (£156,375). The increase in the exports over production is due to the accumulation of stocks in the previous year when 18,650 tons were produced but 15,192 tons, valued at Rs. 11,60,449 (£83,486) were exported.

III.—MINERALS OF GROUP II.

The alum industry of the Mianwali district, Punjab, has not yet recovered from the severe decline since 1922, but the figures for 1925 shew a slight improvement over those for the previous year. The output during the year under review amounted to 1,050 cwts. valued at Rs. 22,848 (£1,718) against 926·5 cwts. valued at Rs. 18,900 (£1,359) in 1924.

There was a large decrease in the production of amber in the Myitkyina district, Burma, which amounted to 16·1 cwts. valued at Rs. 9,440 (£710), against 89·3 cwts. valued at Rs. 15,301 (£1,101) in 1924.

An output of 10 tons valued at Rs. 345 (£26) was reported from the Amherst district in Burma. No production from this area is recorded since 1917 when 105 tons were raised; in 1916 the district was responsible for 1,000 tons from two or three different localities.

There was a considerable decrease in the output of apatite in Singhbhum, which amounted to 1,480 tons valued at Rs. 11,300 (£850), against 6,426 tons, valued at Rs. 68,004 (£4,892) in 1924. The development of the Singhbhum deposits is restricted by the small demand in India for this phosphate fertiliser.

There was a further decrease in the production of asbestos which amounted to only 16 tons valued at Rs. 4,796 (£361), against 125.3 tons valued at Rs. 18,826 (£1,354) in 1924. The production was derived from the Cuddapah district in the Madras Presidency. The mines in the Seraikela State of Bihar and Orissa and in the Bhandara district of the Central Provinces from which an output of asbestos was reported in the previous year were not worked during the year under review.

The output of barytes from the Kurnool district of Madras and the Alwar State of Rajputana fell further from a total of 2,303 tons valued at Rs. 31,341 (£2,255) in 1924 to 1,450 tons valued at Rs. 17,660 (£1,328). Of this 580 tons were reported from Kurnool and the balance from the Alwar State.

The output of bauxite fell from 23,228 tons valued at Rs. 1,88,075 (£13,531) in 1924 to 10,070 tons valued at Rs. 84,055 (£6,320) in 1925; the details of production are shown in the accompanying table. The figure for 1924 was, however, a record output more than double that of any other year; the figure for 1925 is still considerably in excess of the average for the four years previous to 1924.

TABLE 33.—*Quantity and value of Bauxite produced in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13.9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13.3).	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
<i>Bombay—</i>						
Belgaum.				1,500	8,250	620
Kaira	19,738	1,77,640	12,780	6,967	66,186	4,977
<i>Central Provinces—</i>						
Jubbulpore	3,490	10,435	751	1,003	9,619	723
TOTAL	23,228	1,88,075	13,531	10,070	84,055	6,320

TABLE 34.—*Production of Building Materials and Road Metal in India during 1925.*

(The value in sterling pounds has been calculated on the basis of £1 = Rs. 13.3.)

	GRANITE AND GNEISS.		LATERITE.		LIME.	LIMESTONE AND KANKAR.	MARBLE.	SANDSTONE.	SLATE.	TRAP.	MISCELLANEOUS.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Assam	Tons. 13,478	£ 2,227	Tons. 6,362	£ 988	Tons. 75,550	£ 11,444	Tons. ..	£ ..	Tons. ..	£ ..	Tons. 55,877	£ 13,223
Baluchistan	14
Bengal	95,537	10,752
Bihar and Orissa	7,102	700	1,874	44	(a) 921,081	163,095	..	9,949	732	2,605	22,143	3,277
Bombay	4,700	793	7,750	977	..	950	180
Burma	496,136	73,927	177,707	20,155	..	23,220	..	81,209	10,279	..	688,222	60,413
Central India	12,635	12,453	34
Central Provinces.	362	381	..	4,668	1,322
Gwalior	18,127	4,104
Kashmir	13
Madras	8,211	121	93,331	3,750	..	338	12,369	1,923
Mysore	1,242	100,345	5,824
N.-W. F. Province	428	359	2,891	978
Punjab	202
Rajputana	4,642
United Provinces	(c) 152,890	14,049	5,651	14,767	178,540	60,224	450	85
	(d) 1,208,509	116,070	..	10,700	3,069	15,449	602	..
Total	524,863	76,275	283,974	25,730	3,108,710	387,317	5,063	14,767	310,943	40,677	26,927	13,766
											23,093	3,457
											3,336	401
											244,479	

(a) Includes 316,580 tons of dolomite valued at Rs. 8,36,782.

(b) Includes 782 tons of manganeseiferous limestone valued at Rs. 6,262.

(c) Includes 8 tons of dolomite valued at Rs. 65.

(d) Includes 1,178,212 tons of kankar used for metalling roads.

The total estimated value of building stone and road-metal produced in the year under consideration was Rs. 1,13,56,215 (£853,851) (see Table 34). Certain returns supplied in cubic feet have been converted into tons on the basis of certain assumed relations between volume and weight. The total production of 3,108,710 tons shown under "Limestone and Kankar" includes the production of dolomite. On enquiry it has been ascertained that dolomite is not at present produced in British India but is restricted only to Indian States. Of the total production of 316,588 tons of dolomite, 316,580 tons were produced in the Gangpur State in Bihar and Orissa mainly for use as flux in iron industries and the remaining 8 tons in the Jaisalmer State in Rajputana for the manufacture of lime. The high figure of 1,208,509 tons shown against the United Provinces represents the production of 22,605 tons of limestone used for lime and 1,185,904 tons of *kankar*, of which 1,178,212 tons were used for metalling roads and the rest for the manufacture of lime.

The recorded production of clay rose from 122,972 tons, valued at Rs. 3,49,979 (£25,178) in 1924 to 128,860 tons, valued at Rs. 2,89,875 (£21,795) in 1925 (see Table 35).

Clay.

The increase in quantity was, however, more than offset by a considerable decrease in value.

TABLE 35.—*Production of Clays in India during 1925.*

	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13-3).	
	Tons.	Rs.	£
Bengal	43,602	44,900	3,376
Bihar and Orissa	32,116	1,68,186	12,646
Burma	25,184	32,895	2,473
Central India	1,223	4,003	301
Central Provinces	17,820	9,407	707
Delhi	2,133	2,256	170
Gwalior	579	6,669	501
Kashmir	1,147	1,920	144
Madras	708	4,038	304
Mysore	3,786	14,294	1,075
Rajputana	562	1,307	98
Total	128,860	2,89,875	21,795

A quantity of 8 cwts. of sulphate of iron valued at Rs. 14 (£1) was produced from the Khardang mine in Ladakh
Copperas. *tehsil*, Kashmir State.

An output of 10 tons of corundum was reported from the Bhandara district in the Central Provinces. The value of the production is not available.
Corundum.

In 1923 there was an unusually large production of Fuller's earth amounting to nearly 27,700 tons. This fell in 1924 to the more normal figure of 4,078 tons and has again fallen to 2,198 tons, a figure not far from the average for the three years 1919-1921. Mysore is chiefly responsible for the fall in 1925, which, however, is partly due to the illiteracy of the workers and consequent incompleteness of returns; Jodhpur again shows a decline.
Fuller's Earth.

TABLE 36.—*Production of Fuller's Earth in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13-9).		Quantity.	Value. (£1 = Rs. 13-3).	
		Tons.	Rs. £		Tons.	Rs. £
<i>Central Provinces—</i>						
Jubbulpore . . .	19	93	7	59	289	22
Mysore	2,534	364	26	143	364	27
<i>Rajputana—</i>						
Bikanir	450	2,010	145	1,180	7,080	533
Jaisalmer	5	85	6	20	310	23
Jodhpur	1,070	13,475	969	796	13,434	1,010
Total	4,078	16,027	1,153	2,198	21,477	1,615

There was again a slight fall in the output of gypsum, from 38,123 tons valued at Rs. 76,838 (£5,527) in 1924 to 36,244 tons valued at Rs. 77,270 (£5,810) in 1925. The effect of gypsum in small quantities upon crops—a common application is 2 maunds to the acre—is said to be remarkable and its usefulness to the monsoon crops of South Bihar has been
Gypsum.

experimentally demonstrated.¹ The Department of Agriculture, Bihar and Orissa, is importing annually increasing amounts of gypsum from Jamsar in Bikanir. This experimental work may, therefore, result in a demand from agricultural districts for gypsum.

TABLE 37.—*Production of Gypsum in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13-0).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13-3)	
		Tons.	Rs.		£	Tons.
Kashmir . . .	48	600	43	132	275	21
<i>Punjab—</i>						
Jhelum . . .	4,927	4,927	354	1,688	3,411	256
<i>Rajputana—</i>						
Bikanir . . .	26,698	55,851	4,018	26,804	57,784	4,345
Jaisalmer . . .	125	823	59	120	800	60
Jodhpur . . .	6,325	14,637	1,053	7,500	15,000	1,128
Total . . .	38 123	76,538	5,627	36,244	77,270	5,811

The output of ilmenite from Travancore State fell further from 641 tons, valued at £1,381 in 1924 to 328 tons, valued at £492 in 1925.

There was a very large increase in the production of refractory materials. The output rose from 224 tons valued at Rs. 3,360 (£242) in 1924 to 6,182 tons valued at Rs.

Kyanite. 40,192 (£3,022). Of this 2 tons were produced in the Manbhum district, 343 tons from the Lapso Hills mines in Kharsawan State (Singhbhum), by the Indian Copper Corporation Ltd. and the balance from the Ghagidih and Mosaboni Mines in Singhbhum worked by Mr. E. O. Murray and the Indian Copper Corporation Ltd., respectively.

There was a further decrease in the production of ochre from 6,304 tons, valued at Rs. 66,719 (£4,800) in 1924 to 5,296 tons, valued at Rs. 37,023 (£2,784) in 1925.

¹ D. Clouston. *Review of Agricultural Operations in India, 1924-25*, p. 52.

TABLE 38.—*Production of Ochre in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·3).	
		Tons.	Rs. £		Tons.	Rs. £
Bihar and Orissa . . .	300	7,665	551
Central India . . .	4400	40,760	2,932	4,303	24,455	1,839
Central Provinces . . .	184	2,698	194	119	2,410	181
Gwalior . . .	783	10,571	761	230	4,937	371
Madras . . .	325	4,375	315	340	4,600	346
Rajputana . . .	312	650	47	304	621	47
Total	6,304	66 719	4 800	5,296	37,023	2,784

An output of 40 tons of oil shale valued at Rs. 200 (£15) was reported for the first time from the Amherst district in Burma.

Oil Shale.
 Phosphate (*see Apatite*).
 An exceptionally fine crystal of transparent quartz recently came to light in Burma. A ball, 30 inches in diameter and 130 lbs. in weight, was cut from the mass in China polished in Japan and has found its way to the United States National Museum at Washington. The crystal is presumed to have come from the Sakangyi area near Mogok.

Rock crystal.
 The production of serpentine in the Ladak *tahsil*, Kashmir State, rose from 1·8 tons valued at Rs. 75 (£5·4) in 1924 to 2·6 tons valued at Rs. 105 (£8) in 1925.

Serpentine.
 There was a further increase in the production of soda in the Ladak *tahsil*, Kashmir, from 11·8 tons, valued at Rs. 430 (£31), in 1924 to 28·3 tons, valued at Rs. 1,126 (£85) in the year under review. Salt, consisting for the greater part of sodium carbonate, sodium bicarbonate and sodium chloride, is obtained by evaporation from the waters of the Lonar lake in the Buldana district of the Central Provinces. It is known under the general name of *trona* or *urao*, for which there is no suitable equivalent in English. The total amount of *trona* extracted in 1925 was 35 tons, valued at Rs. 1,050 (£79) as against 20 tons, valued at Rs. 800 (£58) in 1924. There was also a produc-

Soda.
 ing for the greater part of sodium carbonate, sodium bicarbonate and sodium chloride, is obtained by evaporation from the waters of the Lonar lake in the Buldana district of the Central Provinces. It is known under the general name of *trona* or *urao*, for which there is no suitable equivalent in English. The total amount of *trona* extracted in 1925 was 35 tons, valued at Rs. 1,050 (£79) as against 20 tons, valued at Rs. 800 (£58) in 1924. There was also a produc-

tion of 3·4 tons of crude soda (*rasi*), valued at Rs. 92 (£7) in Datia State, Central India.

The great fall in the output of steatite in 1924 was followed by a slight fall in 1925 amounting to some 43 tons, but this was accompanied by an enormous increase in value the 1925 yield being estimated at double the value of that of 1924.

TABLE 39.—*Production of Steatite in India during 1924 and 1925.*

	1924.			1925.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·9).		Quantity.	Value (£1 = Rs. 13·5).	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
<i>Bihar and Orissa—</i>						
Mayurbhanj . . .	67·0	6,200	447	90·0	8,350	628
Nilgiri	3,500	252
Seraikela . . .	18·4	1,000	72	25·7	1,400	105
Singhbhum . . .	63·8	3,359	241	58·9	3,539	266
<i>Burma—</i>						
Pakokku Hill Tracts	7·1	1,956	141	3·1	800	60
<i>Central Provinces—</i>						
Bhandara	337·5	13,500	1,015
Jubbulpore . . .	1,675·0	17,597	1,266	1,286·8	70,799	5,323
<i>Madras</i>						
Kurnool . . .	4·0	245	17	4·0	244	18
Nellore . . .	108·0	6,538	470	82·2	5,724	430
Salem . . .	804·0	19,748	1,421	712·8	16,697	1,256
Mysore . . .	50·0	120	9	101·0	810	61
<i>United Provinces—</i>						
Hamirpur . . .	37·0	8,050	579	31·0	7,040	530
Jhansi . . .	18·0	864	62	76·0	770	58
Total . . .	2,852·3	69,177	4,977	2,809·0	1,29,673	9,750

(a) Estimated.

Sulphate of Iron (*see Copperas*).

There was a further increase in the production of zircon in the Travancore State, which rose from 365 tons, valued at £2,717 in 1924, to 576 tons valued at £4,608 in 1925.

IV.—MINERAL CONCESSIONS GRANTED.

TABLE 40.—Statement of Mineral Concessions granted during the year 1925.

AJMER-MERWARA.

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Ajmer	(1) Messrs. J. A. Begbie & Co.	Mica . . .	P. L. .	0.66	25th January 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(2) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. (renewal).	4.42	22nd June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(3) L. Kanahyalal, Nasirabad.	Do. . .	P. L. .	4.22	19th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(4) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	3.00	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(5) Messrs. Samsuddin and Sons of Nasirabad.	Do. . .	P. L. .	1.59	25th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(6) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	3.97	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(7) Mr. E. P. Thomas	Do. . .	P. L. .	6.76	10th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(8) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	0.66	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(9) L. Prem Sukh Rathl of Nasirabad.	Do. . .	P. L. .	14.17	23rd September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(10) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	0.83	1st December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(11) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	5.55	5th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(12) Begbie Mining Syndicate.	Do. . .	M. L. .	6.02	1st June 1925	5 years.
Do.	(13) Mr. E. P. Thomas	Do. . .	M. L. .	*	14th November 1925.	3 years.
Beawar	(14) Rajputana Minerals & Co., Ltd., Bombay.	Graphite . .	P. L. .	6.05	17th December 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(15) M. Mohamed Easal of Ajmer.	Mica . . .	P. L. (renewal).	0.22	12th June 1925.	Do.

ASSAM.

Cachar	(16) Craig Park Tea Company, Limited.	Mineral oil . .	P. L. .	1,915.58	5th May 1925	2 years.
Do.	(17) Whitehall Petroleum Corporation, Limited.	Crude petroleum and its associated hydrocarbons.	P. L. .	11,968	9th February 1925.	1 year.
Khasi and Jaintia Hills.	(18) John Buchanan Beattie.	Coal . . .	M. L. .	5,817.6	4th September 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(19) Mr. P. N. Sen	Mineral oil . .	P. L. .	2,518	9th October 1925.	2 years.

P. L. = Prospecting License. M. L. = Mining Lease.
 * Whole of the Bavri Estate.

ASSAM—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Lakhimpur .	(20) Assam Oil Company, Ltd.	Oil	P. L. (renewal).	5,120	30th March 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(21) Do. .	Do. . . .	P. L. (renewal).	4,480	7th April 1925	Do.
Do. .	(22) Do. .	Do. . . .	P. L. (renewal).	4,160	20th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(23) Do. .	Do. . . .	P. L. (renewal).	3,968	12th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(24) Do. .	Do. . . .	P. L. (renewal).	9,792	7th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(25) Do. .	Coal	P. L. (renewal).	3,328	5th February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(26) Do. .	Do. . . .	P. L. .	9,792	7th October 1925.	Do.
Naga Hills .	(27) Whitehall Petroleum Corporation, Limited.	Mineral oil . .	P. L. .	7,180.8	16th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(28) Do. .	Do. . . .	P. L. .	4,211.2	Do.	Do.
Nowgong .	(29) Do. .	Oil and its associated hydrocarbons.	P. L. .	1,344	9th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(30) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	5,050	3rd March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(31) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,344	20th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(32) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,920	Do.	Do.
Sadiya Frontier Tract	(33) Assam Oil Company, Limited.	Mineral oil . .	P. L. .	2,240	19th December 1925.	Do.
Sibsagar .	(34) Do. .	Coal and oil . .	P. L. .	1,440	5th June 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(35) Burmah Oil Company, Limited.	Do. .	P. L. .	6,400	9th June 1925.	Do.
Sylhet .	(36) Do. .	Mineral oil . .	P. L. .	11,945	10th December 1925.	2 years.
Do. .	(37) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	3,160	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(38) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	3,136	3rd May 1925	1 year.

BALUCHISTAN.

Kalat .	(39) The Burmah Oil Co., Ltd., Scotland.	Mineral Oil . .	P. L. .	3,200	1st September 1920.	8 years.
Do. .	(40) Do. .	Do. . . .	E. L. .	Not known	2nd October 1924.	1 year.
Zhob .	(41) The Baluchistan Chrome Co., Ltd., Hindubagh.	Chromite . .	M. L. .	10	20th March 1925.	30 years.

P. L. = Prospecting Licence,

M. L. = Mining Lease,

E. L. = Exploring Licence,

BENGAL.

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Chittagong .	(42) Whitehall Petroleum Corporation Ltd.	Natural petroleum	P. L. .	3,061-98	16th June 1925.	1 year.
Chittagong Hill Tracts	(43) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Mineral oil .	P. L. (renewal.)	9,600	7th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(44) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal.)	7,719 04	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(45) Whitehall Petroleum Corporation Ltd.	Do. .	P. L. (renewal.)	4,601-6	14th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(46) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do. .	P. L. (renewal.)	4,313-6	9th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(47) Whitehall Petroleum Corporation Ltd.	Do. .	P. L. (renewal.)	2,912	3rd September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(48) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal.)	5,401-6	14th April 1925.	Do.

BIHAR AND ORISSA.

Hazaribagh.	(49) Kumar Krishna Mitra.	Mica . . .	M. L. .	Not available	1st November 1925.	2 years.
Patna .	(50) Mr. D. C. Nag .	All minerals .	P. L. .	3,552	16th December 1925.	1 year.
Saptal Parganas.	(51) Bhudar Chandra De.	Coal . . .	M. L. .	3-94	1st April 1925.	2 years.
Do. .	(52) Binode Behari De	Do . . .	M. L. .	2-15	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(53) Ramrekha Das Merwari.	Do. . .	M. L. .	0-99	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(54) Bansil Ram Merwari.	Do. . .	M. L. .	1-90	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(55) Do. .	Do. . .	M. L. .	5-00	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(56) Ganga Ram Merwari.	Do. . .	M. L. .	2-48	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(57) Ramrekha Das Merwari.	Do. . .	M. L. .	4-27	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(58) Jetha Mulji .	Do. . .	M. L. .	3-00	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(59) Do. .	Do. . .	M. L. .	5-00	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(60) Bhudar Chandra De.	Do. . .	M. L. .	0-99	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(61) Ramrekha Das Merwari.	Do. . .	M. L. .	5-00	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(62) Ganga Ram Merwari.	Do. . .	M. L. .	5-04	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(63) Bhudar Chandra De.	Do. . .	M. L. .	1-00	Do. .	Do.

BIHAR AND ORISSA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Singhbhum	(64) Hira Lal Sarda .	Limestone . .	P. L. .	340.94	11th February 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(65) Lalji Jhina & Sons.	Iron-ore . .	P. L. .	611.00	15th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(66) The Bengal Iron Company, Limited.	Iron-ore and Manganese.	M. L. .	1,139.76	7th March 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(67) Kall Charan Trivedi.	Yellow Ochre .	M. L. .	6.79	1st April 1925.	3 years.
Do.	(68) Satya Charan Mukharji.	All minerals .	P. L. .	115.20	24th July 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(69) Do.	Do.	P. L. .	121	24th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(70) Arjune Ladha .	Do.	P. L. .	125	18th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(71) Mangi Lal Merwari.	Chromite . .	P. L. .	332.50	23rd July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(72) Messrs. Martin & Co.	Manganese . .	P. L. .	212.80	21th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(73) Mangi Lal Merwari.	Do.	M. L. .	462.71	12th December 1925.	20 years.

BOMBAY.

Belgaum .	(74) Mr. A. N. Peston Jamsa.	Bauxite . .	P. L. .	1,072.92	24th March 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(75) Rao Sahib D. C. Mandkum.	Manganese . .	P. L. .	320	23rd November 1925.	6 months.
Kanara .	(76) Messrs. D. M. Tilve and Sons.	Do.	P. L. .	264	29th September 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(77) Mr. K. Rama Chandra.	Do.	P. L. .	1,584	17th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(78) Messrs. D. M. Tilve and Sons.	Do.	M. L. .	10.3	Not yet executed.	25 years.
Do.	(79) Mr. T. R. Kantharia.	Do.	M. L. .	116	Do.	3 years.
Sukkur .	(80) Indo-Burmah Petroleum Company Limited.	Mineral oil . .	P. L. (renewal).	6,008.52	1st September 1924.	1 year.
West Khandesh.	(81) Messrs. Ramgopal Jagannath.	Coal, white stones, Iron, Mica and Oils.	P. L. .	79.17	25th September 1925.	Do.

P. L. = *Prospecting License.* M. L. = *Mining Lease.*

BURMA.

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Akyab	(82) The Burmah Oil Co., Ltd., Rangoon.	Natural petroleum.	P. L.	1,280	2nd November 1925.	2 years.
Do.	(83) The Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd., Rangoon.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	5,440	15th December 1924.	1 year.
Do.	(84) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	4,800	19th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(85) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	1,280	22nd April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(86) The Burmah Oil Co., Ltd., Rangoon.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	3,630	16th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(87) Whitehall Petroleum Corporation, Lahore.	Natural petroleum and its associated hydrocarbon.	P. L. (renewal).	5,120	19th September 1925	Do.
Amherst	(88) D. A. David	Sulphides	P. L.	1,280	30th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(89) Do.	Do.	P. L.	1,280	30th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(90) S. H. Harman	All minerals	P. L.	1,280	9th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(91) H. Bryant	All minerals except oil.	P. L.	1,280	19th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(92) D. A. David	Do.	P. L.	640	4th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(93) Chew Whee Shain	Do.	P. L.	1,037	24th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(94) Saw Lein Lee	Do.	P. L.	1,280	16th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(95) H. Bryant	Do.	P. L.	1,920	15th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(96) Saw Lein Lee	Antimony	P. L.	1,600	5th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(97) Do.	Do.	P. L.	1,218	17th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(98) M. E. Moolia	Oil Shale	M. L.	12,800	21st August 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(99) D. A. David	Antimony	M. L.	269	23rd September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(100) Messrs. Balthazar & Son.	Mineral oil	P. L. (renewal).	5,760	24th February 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(101) Dr. M. Shawloo.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	7,040	26th February 1925.	Do.
Bhamo	(102) Messrs. Foucar & Co., Ltd., Managing Agents, The Tavoy Tin Syndicate, Ltd., Rangoon.	All minerals except natural petroleum and jade.	P. L. (renewal).	826	24th January 1925.	Do.

P. L. = Prospecting License, M. L. = Mining Lease.

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Kyaukpau	(103) Messrs. Finlay Fleming & Co., Managing Agents, The Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Natural Petroleum.	P. L. (renewal).	1,280	1st June 1925.	1 year.
Kyaukse	(104) Yeo Eng Byan	Minerals other than oil.	P. L.	5,568	26th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(105) W. Kim Kyo	Do.	P. L.	3,040	5th December 1925.	Do.
Lower Chindwin.	(106) U. P. Kyan	Natural petroleum.	P. L.	640	1st March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(107) Mr. L. Dawson	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	3,008	6th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(108) The Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	1,920	1st August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(109) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	3,200	22nd September 1925.	Do.
Magwe	(110) The Sanghai Oil Co.	Do.	P. L.	134	5th May 1925.	2 years.
Do.	(111) Do.	Do.	P. L.	640	2nd June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(112) The Hessford Development Syndicate.	Do.	P. L.	640	12th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(113) U. Thu Daw	Do.	P. L.	2,560	15th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(114) The Sanghai Oil Co.	Do.	P. L.	100	11th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(115) British Burma Petroleum Co.	Do.	P. L.	72	26th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(116) Upper Burma Oil Syndicate.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	76	16th November 1924.	1 year.
Do.	(117) U. Ye	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	640	10th November 1924	Do.
Do.	(118) Union Oil Co.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	3,840	21st January 1925	Do.
Do.	(119) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	2,259	25th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(120) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	3,840	2nd June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(121) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	320	12th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(122) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	560	Do.	Do.
Do.	(123) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	320	Do.	Do.
Do.	(124) Upper Burma Oil Syndicate.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	76	16th November 1925.	Do.

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Magwe .	(126) Upper Burma Oil Syndicate.	Natural petroleum.	P. L. (renewal).	2,880	1st December 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(126) Mr. Abdul Rahman.	Do. .	P. L. .	1,280	27th July 1925.	2 years.
Do. .	(127) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do. .	P. L. .	82	*	Do.
Mandalay .	(128) Messrs. Steel Bros. & Co., Ltd., Rangoon.	All minerals except oil.	P. L. .	1,997	1st October 1925.	1 year.
Melktila .	(129) Mr. S. S. Halakar.	Galena . .	P. L. .	307	26th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(130) Mrs. Grace Smith	All minerals except oil.	P. L. .	3,200	14th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(131) Mr. Colin Campbell.	Do. .	P. L. .	1,280	9th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(132) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Natural petroleum.	P. L. (renewal).	1,850	26th May 1925.	Do.
Mergui .	(133) Mr. A. M. G. Forbes.	Tin . . .	P. L. .	589	14th January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(134) Mr. Ijm Shain .	All minerals except oil.	P. L. .	655.3	10th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(135) Messrs. Burma Finance and Mining Co., Ltd.	Do. .	P. L. .	1,702	8th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(136) Mg. Choon .	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L. .	1,157.12	17th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(137) Mr. Jas McGregor.	Tin . . .	P. L. .	1,190.4	12th February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(138) Mr. Md. Haniff	Tin ore and other allied metals.	P. L. .	1,843.2	23rd February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(139) Ma Kyon .	Tin . . .	P. L. .	163.84	15th January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(140) Mr. Joo Seng .	All minerals except oil.	P. L. .	985.6	1st August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(141) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	568.2	22nd April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(142) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	568.3	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(143) Mr. Khaw Joo Tok.	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L. .	1,280	2nd April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(144) Dr. San Moe .	Do. .	P. L. .	161.3	28th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(145) Mr. A. S. Mohamed.	Tin . . .	P. L. .	778.2	20th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(146) Maung Choon .	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L. .	691.2	4th August 1925.	Do.

P. L. = *Prospecting License*. M. L. = *Mining Lease*.

* Sanctioned on 23rd December 1925.

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Mergui	(147) Maung San Dun.	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L.	189.4	4th April 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(148) Mr. A. Herbert Noyes.	Tin ore and allied metals.	P. L.	117.8	31st July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(149) Mr. E. Ahmed.	Tin ore.	P. L.	192	26th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(150) Maung Po.	Tin.	P. L.	240.6	18th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(151) Mr. H. Kim Choo.	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L.	622.7	20th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(152) Mr. S. Warwick Smith.	All minerals except mineral oil.	P. L.	716.8	25th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(153) Mr. P. B. O. Watson.	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L.	1,047	17th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(154) Tan Po Chit.	All minerals except oil.	P. L.	286.7	9th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(155) Yoo Sain Guan.	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L.	590	18th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(156) Leong Foke Hye.	Do.	P. L.	460.8	2nd June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(157) Ma Kyon.	Tin.	P. L.	353.3	20th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(158) Mr. Joo Seng.	All minerals except oil.	P. L.	640	17th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(159) Mr. E. B. Milne.	Do.	P. L.	1,267.2	26th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(160) Leong Foke Hye.	Tin and allied metals.	P. L.	747.5	5th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(161) Lee Quee Chee.	Do.	P. L.	629.8	20th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(162) Do.	Do.	P. L.	1,843.2	22nd August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(163) Do.	Do.	P. L.	573.4	20th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(164) Do.	Do.	P. L.	921.6	22nd August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(165) Do.	Do.	P. L.	215	20th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(166) Ma Kyon.	Tin.	P. L.	624	30th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(167) Mg. Kyn Bu.	Tin and allied metals.	P. L.	87	19th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(168) Maung San Dun.	Tin.	P. L.	128	3rd August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(169) Mr. A. Herbert Noyes.	Camellierite and allied minerals.	P. L.	657.9	8th September 1925.	Do.

P. L. = *Prospecting Licence.* M. L. = *Mining Lease.*

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Mergui .	(170) Mr. Joo Seng .	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L. .	122.9	1st August 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(171) L. Ah Foo .	Tin and allied metals.	P. L. .	622.7	21st October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(172) Mr. S. Warwick Smith.	All minerals except mineral oil.	P. L. .	194.6	17th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(173) Mr. A. E. Ahmad	Tin ore and other allied metals.	P. L. .	325.1	5th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(174) Messrs. Mayan Chaung Alluvials, Ltd.	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L. .	389.1	26th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(175) Mr. Khaw Joo Tok.	Do. .	P. L. .	463.4	17th August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(176) Mr. Geo. W. Bowden.	Tin ore and wolfram.	P. L. .	629.8	4th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(177) Mr. Joo Seng .	Tin ore . .	P. L. .	51.2	21st October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(178) Do. .	Tin . . .	P. L. .	220.2	19th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(179) Leong Ah Foo .	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L. .	542.7	21st October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(180) Mr. A. Aziz Yunoo.	Tin . . .	P. L. .	552.96	5th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(181) Mohamed Ghose	All minerals except mineral oil.	P. L. .	337.92 .	8th December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(182) Joo Seng . .	Do. .	P. L. .	3,280.72	*	Do.
Do. .	(183) Mr. A. S. Mahmood.	Tin ore . .	M. L. .	384	10th July 1925.	15 years.
Do. .	(184) Ma Kyin Mya and Ma Lin.	Tin and allied minerals except natural petroleum.	M. L. .	298.32	24th October 1924.	30 years.
Do. .	(185) In Sit Yan .	Tin and other minerals.	P. L. (renewal).	235.52	17th January 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(186) Mr. J. I. Milne .	All minerals except mineral oil.	P. L. (renewal).	1,441.28	11th January 1925.	2 years.
Do. .	(187) Mr. Chan Khain Look.	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	860.16	22nd February 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(188) Maung Po Thaik and 2.	Tin . . .	P. L. (renewal).	1,971.2	24th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(189) Tan Po Chit .	All minerals except oil.	P. L. (renewal).	614.4	30th July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(190) In Sit Yan .	Tin and other minerals.	P. L. (renewal).	624.64	6th August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(191) Mr. C. Chan Shwe.	All minerals except mineral oil.	P. L. (renewal).	1,464.8	21st July 1925.	2 years.

P. L. = Prospecting License. M. L. = Mining Lease.

* Sanctioned on 17th November 1925.

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Mergui .	(102) Mr. J. I. Milne .	All minerals except mineral oil.	P. L. (renewal).	634-88	23rd July 1925.	2 years.
Do. .	(193) Mr. Joo Seng .	All minerals except oil.	P. L. (renewal).	471-04	10th September 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(194) Mr. A. E. Ahmed	Tin ore .	P. L. (renewal).	558-08	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(195) Mr. E. Ahmed .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,000-96	2nd October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(196) Messrs. Beadon and Doupe.	Tin and other minerals except mineral oil.	P. L. (renewal).	2,320-6	19th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(197) Mr. Md. Haniff	Tin . . .	P. L. (renewal).	1,336-32	24th November 1925.	Do.
Minbu .	(198) Messrs. Burma Finance and Mining Co.	All kinds of minerals including natural petroleum.	P. L. .	352-64	3rd November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(199) Messrs. Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Natural petroleum.	P. L. (renewal).	640	23rd January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(200) Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd.	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,926-4	5th January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(201) D. M. Akhoon .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,280	18th May 1925.	Do.
Myingyan .	(202) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do. .	P. L. .	1,920	10th June 1925.	2 years.
Do. .	(203) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	1,036-8	25th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(204) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	2,960	5th July 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(205) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,760	7th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(206) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,004-8	31st July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(207) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,440	10th June 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(208) Maung Net & I	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	99-84	3rd November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(209) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	2,913-44	22nd December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(210) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,580-16	20th December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(211) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	1,158-4	17th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(212) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	40-96	20th December 1924.	Do.
Do. .	(213) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. (renewal).	2,612-44	22nd December 1924.	Do.

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Myitkyina .	(214) Mr. C. W. Charter.	All minerals except oil.	P. L. (renewal).	8-32	13th October 1924.	1 year.
Northern Shan States.	(215) Maung Khin Maung Momelk Saw-bwa.	All kinds of minerals and precious stones.	P. L.	274-56	1st September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(216) Burma Corporation Ltd., Namtu.	Iron ore .	M. L.	79-36	22nd August 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(217) Do.	Do.	M. L.	268-8	22nd August 1925.	Do.
Pakokku .	(218) Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd.	Natural petroleum.	P. L.	723-2	*	2 years.
Do.	(219) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	13,440	†	Do.
Do.	(220) Nath Sing Oil Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	4,089-6	‡	Do.
Do.	(221) Messrs. E. Solomon & Son.	Do.	M. L.	2,560	10th February 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(222) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	800	7th November 1924.	1 year.
Do.	(223) Mr. Collin Campbell.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	554-24	22nd November 1924.	Do.
Do.	(224) Ma Zan .	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	99-84	29th June 1925.	Do.
Shwebo .	(225) Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	6,080	12th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(226) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	4,704	23rd November 1925.	2 years.
Do.	(227) Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	5,113-6	§	1 year.
Do.	(228) Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	2,336	25th September 1924.	Do.
Do.	(229) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	2,310-4	Do.	
Do.	(230) Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal).	5,440	14th August 1925.	Do.
Southern Shan States.	(231) J. W. Ryan .	All minerals except oil.	P. L.	512	June 1925 .	Do.
Do.	(232) O. F. Browne .	Do.	P. L.	640	18th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(233) Kalaw Mining Syndicate.	Do.	P. L.	3,200	27th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(234) Steel Bros. & Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	2,240	25th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(235) Collin Campbell	Do.	P. L.	1,920	19th November 1925.	Do.

P. L. = *Prospecting License*. M. L. = *Mining Lease*.

* Sanctioned on 23rd October 1924.

† Sanctioned on 28th December 1925.

‡ Sanctioned on 26th August 1925.

§ Sanctioned on 19th January 1925.

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Southern Shan States. Do.	(236) Captain C. R. Smith.	All minerals except oil.	P. L.	3,200	25th September 1925.	1 year.
	(237) Collin Campbell	Do.	P. L.	896	28th November 1925.	Do.
	(238) Steel Bros. & Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	1,574.4	1st June 1925.	2 years.
	(239) Collin Campbell	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	2,880	18th December 1925.	1 year.
Tavoy	(240) Ong Hoe Kyn	Tin and wolfram	P. L.	217.6	15th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(241) Mr. B. Ribbentrop.	Do.	P. L.	640	21st January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(242) Tavoy Tin Dredging Corp'n., Ltd.	Tin	P. L.	300.8	2nd May 1925	Do.
Do.	(243) Do.	Do.	P. L.	179.2	25th August 1925.	6 months.
Do.	(244) Mr. James M. Watt.	Tin and wolfram	P. L.	640	20th February 1925	1 year.
Do.	(245) Burma Finance and Mining Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	1,280	21st March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(246) Tavoy Tin Dredging Corp'n., Ltd.	Tin	P. L.	1,177.6	28th May 1925	Do.
Do.	(247) Mr. M. A. Musajl	Tin and wolfram	P. L.	320	13th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(248) Mr. Mamode Assenje.	Do.	P. L.	396.8	15th June 1925.	6 months.
Do.	(249) Mr. J. W. Newbery.	Do.	P. L.	1,068.8	18th June 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(250) Ong Hoe Kyn	Do.	P. L.	198.4	10th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(251) Mr. Wong Cheuk	Do.	P. L.	640	23rd July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(252) Ma Yai	Do.	P. L.	300.8	7th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(253) San Chit Swe	Do.	P. L.	614.4	29th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(254) Ma Yi	Do.	P. L.	640	17th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(255) Mr. J. W. Watt	Do.	P. L.	422.4	19th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(256) Maung Ba Bwa	Do.	P. L.	640	13th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(257) Mr. J. T. Doupe	Do.	P. L.	192	16th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(258) Maung Ngwe Thi	Do.	P. L.	563.2	Do.	Do.

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Tavoy	(259) Ma Thein May	Tin and wolfram	P. L.	640	18th September 1925.	6 months.
Do.	(260) Mrs. S. Wellington.	Do.	P. L.	89.6	21st September 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(261) Maung Ngwe Thl	Do.	P. L.	640	17th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(262) Mr. J. W. Newbery.	Do.	P. L.	422.4	10th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(263) Mr. B. Ribbentrop.	Do.	P. L.	640	1st September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(264) Mr. H. Kim Chu	Do.	P. L.	435.2	30th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(265) Finance Mining Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	288	19th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(266) Mr. M. A. Musaji	Do.	P. L.	409.6	30th November 1925.	6 months.
Do.	(267) Mr. H. Kim Chu	Do.	P. L.	396.8	Do.	1 year.
Do.	(268) Mrs. S. Wellington.	Do.	P. L.	384	2nd December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(269) Ung Cheng Hong	Do.	P. L.	844.8	19th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(270) Mr. Ali Adjim Sooratee.	Do.	P. L.	537.6	21st October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(271) Mr. W. C. Toms	Do.	P. L.	569.6	5th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(272) Mr. Ali Adjim Sooratee.	Do.	P. L.	352	19th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(273) The Burma Finance and Mining Co., Ltd.	Do.	M. L.	1,762.56	25th July 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(274) Mr. J. J. A. Page	Cassiterite, wolframite and gold.	M. L.	179.84	30th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(275) Do.	Cassiterite	M. L.	90.84	31st March 1925.	10 years.
Do.	(276) Maung Ni Too	Wolfram and tin	M. L.	179.2	17th November 1925.	25 years.
Do.	(277) Do.	Do.	M. L.	155.84	5th May 1925	30 years.
Do.	(278) U. Maung Maung	Do.	M. L.	640	7th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(279) Messrs. The Tavoy Tin Dredging Corp., Ltd.	Tin	M. L.	144	4th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(280) Mr. Lee Talk Seong.	Wolfram and tin	M. L.	293.12	9th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(281) Messrs. The Burma Finance and Mining Co., Ltd.	Do.	M. L.	217.6	11th August 1925.	Do.

P. L. = Prospecting Licence.

M. L. = Mining Lease.

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Tavoy	(282) Mr. A. W. Ross.	W Ifram and tin	P. L. (renewal.)	1216	21st February 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(283) Mr. J. T. Doupe	All minerals except oil.	P. L. (renewal.)	1,433.6	12th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(284) Burma Finance and Mining Co., Ltd., formerly Mr. M. T. Dunstan.	Tin and wolfram	P. L. (renewal.)	499.2	2nd January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(285) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	192	Do.	Do.
Do.	(286) Quah Cheng Guan.	All minerals except oil.	P. L. (renewal.)	729.6	Do.	Do.
Do.	(287) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	582.4	Do.	Do.
Do.	(288) Mr. W. C. Toms	Tin and allied metals.	P. L. (renewal.)	633.6	3rd March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(289) Mr. T. J. Mackey	Tin and wolfram	P. L. (renewal.)	492.8	8th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(290) Mr. H. Kim Chu	Tin and allied minerals.	P. L. (renewal.)	192	25th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(291) Maung Ni Toe	All minerals except oil.	P. L. (renewal.)	96	20th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(292) Quah Cheng Tock	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	864	12th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(293) Quah Cheng Guan.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	256	24th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(294) U. Maung Maung	Tin and wolfram	P. L. (renewal.)	473.6	25th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(295) Mr. W. C. Toms	All minerals except oil.	P. L. (renewal.)	633.6	10th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(296) Mr. H. Keely	Tin and other minerals.	P. L. (renewal.)	396.8	24th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(297) U. Maung Maung	Tin and wolfram	P. L. (renewal.)	320	15th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(298) Mr. A. W. Ross	Tin	P. L. (renewal.)	160	6th October 1925.	6 months.
Do.	(299) Ma Yai	Tin and wolfram	P. L. (renewal.)	640	8th November 1925.	1 year.
Thahton	(300) Mr. B. R. Fernandes.	All minerals except oil.	P. L.	247.68	29th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(301) Maung	Do.	P. L.	480	22nd June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(302) Mr. A. Rahim	Do.	P. L.	2,456	21st October 1925.	Do.
Thayetmyo	(303) Messrs. Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd.	Natural petroleum	P. L.	8,960	9th February 1925.	2 years.
Do.	(304) Messrs. Indo-Burma Oilfields, Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	633.6	2nd January 1925.	1 year.

P. L. = *Prospecting License* M. L. = *Mining Lease*.

BURMA—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Thayetmyo.	(305) Messrs. Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Natural petroleum	P. L.	1,280	6th August 1925.	2 years.
Do.	(306) U. Shwe Ni, Agent of Chwa Maung Pike.	Chromite . .	P. L.	2,444.8	31st July 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(307) C. M. Jeewajee, Allammyo.	Natural petroleum	P. L.	96	1st May 1925	2 years.
Do.	(308) Messrs. Indo-Burma Oilfields, Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal)	960	12th March 1924.	1 year.
Do.	(309) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	640	6th October 1924.	Do.
Do.	(310) Maung Hinc Bu	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	108.4	15th September 1924.	Do.
Do.	(311) Do.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	96	Do.	Do.
Do.	(312) Chwa Maung Pike	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	96	12th October 1924.	Do.
Do.	(313) Mr. Rowland Ady.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	3,008	13th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(314) Mr. Omer Abu Buckeratas Maung Ba Kyaw.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	2,560	23rd February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(315) Ismail Abu Ahmed.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	2,400	15th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(316) Messrs. Indo-Burma Oilfields, Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	960	12th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(317) Mr. Collin Campbell, Rangoon.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	1,420.8	11th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(318) Messrs. Indo-Burma Oilfields, Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	2,560	12th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(319) Chwa Maung Pike.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	96	12th October 1925.	Do.
Pungoo	(320) Capt. E. L. Bill	All minerals except oil.	P. L. (renewal.)	640	22nd February 1925.	Do.
Upper Chindwin.	(321) Messrs. The Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd.	Natural petroleum	P. L.	2,560	17th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(322) Coalfields of Burma, Ltd.	Coal . . .	P. L. (renewal.)	704	19th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(323) The Indo-Burma Oilfields, Ltd.	Natural petroleum	P. L. (renewal.)	3,200	11th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(324) The Burmah Oil Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	1,760	28th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(325) Indo-Burma Petroleum Co., Ltd.	Do.	P. L. (renewal.)	640	6th October 1925.	Do.
Yamethin	(326) Mr. A. C. Martin	All minerals except oil.	P. L.	1,555.2	24th October 1925.	Do.

CENTRAL PROVINCES.

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Balaghat .	(327) Rai Sahib L. Chhajuram.	Manganese .	P. L. .	65	5th January 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(328) Mr. Shamji Naranji.	Do. . .	P. L. .	8	6th January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(329) Pandit Kripashankar.	Do. . .	P. L. .	451	10.	Do.
Do. .	(330) Pandit Rewashankar.	Do. . .	M. L. .	131	1st September 1915.	30 years.
Do. .	(331) Messrs. M. B. Chopra.	Do. . .	M. L. .	17	27th March 1925.	5 years.
Do. .	(332) Messrs. B. P. Byramji and Company.	Do. . .	M. L. .	17	21st January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(333) Pandit Kripashankar.	Do. . .	M. L. .	6	20th January 1925.	10 years.
Do. .	(334) Pandit Rewashankar.	Do. . .	P. L. .	28	24th February 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(335) Messrs. Ramnarain and Seth Jagannath.	Do. . .	P. L. .	415	30th June 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(336) Seth Chogmal Koher.	Do. . .	M. L. .	126	19th March 1925.	30 years.
Do. .	(337) Diwan Bahadur Seth Ballabhdas.	Do. . .	P. L. .	42	13th January 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(338) Mr. Syed Minhajuddin Ahmed.	Do. . .	P. L. .	258	28th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(339) Rao Sahib L. Chhajuram.	Do. . .	P. L. .	210	2nd January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(340) Messrs. B. P. Byramji and Company.	Do. . .	M. L. .	1	11th May 1925.	5 years.
Do. .	(341) Messrs. Tata Iron and Steel Company.	Do. . .	M. L. .	678	30th July 1924.	30 years.
Do. .	(342) Mr. Syed Minhajuddin Ahmed.	Do. . .	P. L. .	258	11th February 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(343) Pandit Rewashankar.	Do. . .	M. L. .	30	21st July 1925.	15 years.
Do. .	(344) Messrs. B. Fouzdar Brothers.	Do. . .	P. L. .	25	28th March 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(345) Messrs. Samrathmal Batanchand.	Do. . .	P. L. .	60	22nd February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(346) Messrs. Wasudeo Shrawanji.	Do. . .	P. L. .	16	30th January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(347) Mr. P. N. Oke .	Do. . .	P. L. .	23	3rd March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(348) Messrs. B. P. Byramji and Company.	Do. . .	M. L. .	18	26th August 1924.	5 years
Do. .	(349) Mr. Erachsha .	Do. . .	P. L. .	54	22nd May 1925.	1 year.

P. L. = *Prospecting License*, M. L. = *Mining Lease*,

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Balaghat .	(850) Mr. M. B. Murfatia.	Manganese .	P. L.	29	5th March 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(851) Mr. Brachsha .	Do. .	P. L.	173	5th February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(852) Seth Ganesahlal Balbhadra.	Do. .	P. L.	136	28th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(853) Do. .	Do. .	P. L.	34	6th January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(854) Seth Ganesahlal Ramchand.	Do. .	P. L.	41	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(855) Seth Shreeram .	Do. .	M. L.	22	17th March 1925.	15 year.
Do. .	(856) Messrs. Gupta & Sons.	Do. .	P. L.	27	6th January 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(857) Mr. Abdur Rahim Khan.	Do. .	P. L.	5	11th February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(858) Messrs. N. D. Zal and Frothers.	Do. .	P. L.	7	8th May 1925	Do.
Do. .	(859) Do. .	Do. .	P. L.	15	8th May 1925	Do.
Do. .	(860) Mr. Abdur Rahim Khan.	Do. .	M. L.	38	3rd March 1925	30 years.
Do. .	(861) Seth Protap Laxmram.	Do. .	P. L.	162	16th January 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(862) Do. .	Do. .	P. L.	38	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(863) Messrs. Gupta & Sons.	Do. .	P. L.	20	6th January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(864) Messrs. Samrathmal Rafanchand.	Do. .	P. L.	43	3rd August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(865) Mr. P. N. Oke .	Do. .	P. L.	161	22nd January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(866) Messrs. Gupta & Sons.	Do. .	P. L.	64	13th March 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(867) Messrs. Samrathmal Rafanchand.	Do. .	P. L.	112	20th July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(868) Mr. Paramanand Dayaram.	Do. .	P. L.	12	16th January 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(869) Pandi Rewashankar.	Do. .	M. L.	19	9th June 1925.	10 years.
Do. .	(870) Sir M. B. Dadabhoy, Bar-at-Law, Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L.	75	6th March 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(871) Do. .	Do. .	P. L.	528	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(872) Do. .	Do. .	P. L.	11	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(873) Do. .	Do. .	P. L.	7	6th March	Do.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Belaghat .	(374) Mr. Erachshah .	Manganese . .	P. L. .	32	5th February 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(375) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	166	22nd May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(376) Messrs. B. P. Byramji & Co.	Do. . .	M. L. .	4	21st January 1925.	5 years.
Do.	(377) Do.	Do. . .	M. L. .	2	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(378) Do.	Do. . .	M. L. .	18	28th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(379) Messrs. Abdul Hussain Mulla Allabuxji and Jamsetji Billimoria.	Do. . .	P. L. .	115	3rd March 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(380) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	22	30th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(381) Mr. Permanand Dayaram.	Do. . .	P. L. .	46	7th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(382) Seth Shreeram .	Do. . .	M. L. .	56	17th March 1925.	5 years.
Do.	(383) Seth Ganeshlal Ramchand.	Do. . .	P. L. .	8	28th March 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(384) Seth Budharsao	Do. . .	P. L. .	30	26th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(385) Mr. R. S. Sukhla	Do. . .	P. L. .	10	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(386) Seth Ganeshlal Ramchand.	Do. . .	P. L. .	84	28th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(387) Mr. Chandanlal	Do. . .	P. L. .	671	13th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(388) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do. . .	P. L. .	219	30th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(389) Messrs. Lal Behari Ramcharan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	50	9th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(390) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	50	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(391) Mr. Parmanand Dayaram.	Do. . .	P. L. .	51	21st April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(392) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	92	16th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(393) Messrs. Punamchand Kishanlal.	Do. . .	P. L. .	493	24th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(394) Mr. Parmanand Dayaram.	Do. . .	P. L. .	16	14th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(395) R. S. Seth Gowardhan Dass.	Do. . .	P. L. .	171	26th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(396) Messrs. B. P. Byramji & Co.	Do. . .	P. L. .	80	22nd June 1925.	Do.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral	Nature of grant	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Palghat	(397) R. S. D. Laxmi Narayan.	Manganese	P. L.	267	24th February 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(398) Seth Ganeshlal Ramchand.	Do.	P. L.	23	28th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(399) Messrs. B. P. Byramji & Co.	Do.	M. L.	22	21st January 1925.	4 years and 10 months
Do.	(400) Sunderlal Golchha.	Do.	P. L.	21	11th February 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(401) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do.	P. L.	129	5th March 1925	Do.
Do.	(402) Do.	Do.	P. L.	196	30th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(403) Mr. P. N. Oke	Do.	P. L.	17	9th May 1925	Do.
Do.	(404) Seth Budharsao	Do.	P. L.	123	3rd March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(405) Messrs. Martin & Co.	Do.	P. L.	27	22nd June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(406) Do.	Do.	P. L.	76	Do.	Do.
Do.	(407) Messrs. Samrathmal Ratanchand.	Do.	P. L.	101	20th July 1925	Do.
Do.	(408) Seth Budharsao	Do.	P. L.	311	14th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(409) Seth Chunnilal Sao.	Do.	P. L.	13	24th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(410) Mr. Sunderlal Golchha.	Do.	P. L.	113	5th May 1925	Do.
Do.	(411) The Netra Manganese Company, Ltd.	Do.	P. L.	12	4th July 1925	Do.
Do.	(412) Mr. Chandanlal	Do.	P. L.	267	22nd February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(413) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do.	P. L.	166	8th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(414) Mr. P. N. Oke	Do.	P. L.	48	24th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(415) Do.	Do.	P. L.	17	9th May 1925	Do.
Do.	(416) Mr. Ganpat Rao Laxman Rao.	Do.	P. L.	296	3rd August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(417) Mr. C. S. Harris	Do.	P. L.	46	1st April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(418) Messrs. Cheniraji Jearaj.	Do.	P. L.	32	25th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(419) Seth Chunnilal Sao.	Do.	P. L.	791	11th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(420) Messrs. Nosherwanji and Ardesbir.	Do.	P. L.	90	25th May 1925.	Do.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Balaghat .	(421) Pandit Rewa-shankar.	Manganese .	P. L. .	18	14th May 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(422) Rai Sahib A. P. Bhargawa.	Do. . .	P. L. .	176	30th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(423) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do. . .	P. L. .	106	9th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(424) Pandit Rewa-shankar.	Do. . .	P. L. .	246	20th July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(425) Messrs. Nosherwanji and Ardeschi Brothers.	Do. . .	P. L. .	174	25th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(426) Mr. S. R. Pandit	Do. . .	P. L. .	811	21st April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(427) Mr. P. N. Oke .	Do. . .	M. L. .	42	23rd May 1925.	30 years.
Do. .	(428) Mr. Samiulla Khan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	63	8th May 1925	1 year.
Do. .	(429) Mr. C. S. Harris	Do. . .	P. L. .	26	1st April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(430) Messrs. B. P. Byramji & Co.	Do. . .	M. L. .	29	24th January 1925.	5 years.
Do. .	(431) Mr. P. N. Oke .	Do. . .	M. L. .	10	23rd May 1925.	30 years.
Do. .	(432) Seth Chunnial Sao.	Do. . .	P. L. .	25	8th May 1925	1 year.
Do. .	(433) Seth Budharsao	Do. . .	P. L. .	310	28th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(434) Messrs. B. P. Byramji & Co.	Do. . .	P. L. .	161	15th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(435) Mr. Abdul Rahim Khan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	8	11th February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(436) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	6	6th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(437) Rao Sahib Seth Gowardhan Das.	Do. . .	M. L. .	3	21st September 1925.	10 years.
Do. .	(438) Mr. Shamji Narayanji.	Do. . .	M. L. .	8	5th October 1925.	5 years.
Do. .	(439) Mr. Shamji Narayanji.	Do. . .	M. L. .	7	5th October 1925.	5 years.
Do. .	(440) Messrs. Nourojee Rustamjee and M. Chakrabarty.	Do. . .	P. L. .	38	30th August 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(441) Messrs. Cheniram Jesraj.	Do. . .	P. L. .	554	3rd April 1925	Do.
Do. .	(442) Messrs. Ganpatasao Dhanpatsao.	Do. . .	P. L. .	37	8th October 1925.	Do.

P. L. = *Prospecting Licence.* M. L. = *Mining Lease.*

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Belaghat	(443) Seth Shreeram	Manganese	M. L.	10	4th July 1925	Will expire with the mining lease dated the 30th Mar. 1922, to which it is supplementary. 1 year.
Do.	(444) Messrs. Ganpatasao Dhanpatasao.	Do.	P. L.	225	8th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(445) Thakur Nasib Singh.	Do.	P. L.	104	18th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(446) Mr. Samiulla Khan.	Do.	P. L.	79	8th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(447) Pandit Kripashankar.	Do.	P. L.	65	8th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(448) Raj Sahib Seth Gowardhan Das.	Do.	M. L.	20	9th July 1925.	10 years.
Do.	(449) Raj Sahib A. P. Bhargava.	Do.	M. L.	103	28th May 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(450) Do.	Do.	M. L.	100	Do.	Do.
Do.	(451) Pandit Rewashankar.	Do.	P. L.	72	14th May 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(452) Do.	Do.	P. L.	11	Do.	Do.
Do.	(453) Mr. Chandanlal.	Do.	P. L.	8	15th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(454) Seth Balbhadrasao.	Do.	P. L.	281	5th May 1925	Do.
Do.	(455) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do.	P. L.	16	6th April 1925	Do.
Do.	(456) Do.	Do.	P. L.	173	12th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(457) Pandit Kripashankar.	Do.	P. L.	67	25th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(458) Messrs. B. P. Byramji & Co.	Do.	M. L.	11	23rd February 1925.	5 years.
Do.	(459) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do.	P. L.	35	28th March 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(460) Pandit Kripashankar.	Do.	P. L.	256	22nd June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(461) Seth Budhar Sao	Do.	P. L.	73	18th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(462) The Netra Manganese Co., Ltd.	Do.	M. L.	69	2nd October 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(463) Messrs. Nooharwanji Ardeehir Brothers.	Do.	P. L.	10	25th August 1925.	1 year.

P. L. = Prospecting Licence. M. L. = Mining Lease

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Balighat .	(464) Thakur Nasib Singh.	Manganese .	P. L. .	24	18th June 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(465) Dr. B. D. Vyas .	Do. . .	P. L. .	31	5th May 1925	Do.
Do. .	(466) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	6	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(467) Seth Mishrilal Meghra].	Do. . .	P. L. .	65	22nd May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(468) Pandit Bewashankar.	Do. . .	P. L. .	6	20th July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(469) Messrs. Cheniram Josra].	Do. . .	P. L. .	61	17th August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(470) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do. . .	P. L. .	49	18th July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(471) Mr. Samiulla Khan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	488	25th August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(472) Seth Ganeshlal and Seth Balbhadra.	Do. . .	P. L. .	31	30th June 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(473) Mr. Chandanlal .	Do. . .	P. L. .	180	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(474) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	39	26th June 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(475) Mr. Abdur Rahim Khan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	56	22nd December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(476) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	30	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(477) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do. . .	P. L. .	79	30th June 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(478) Mr. Mohamed Anwar Pasha, Minor guardian Munshi S. Allimuddin.	Do. . .	P. L. .	106	30th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(479) Mr. Samiulla Khan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	75	18th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(480) Pandit Kripashankar.	Do. . .	P. L. .	57	11th July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(481) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do. . .	P. L. .	75	10th August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(482) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	94	23th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(483) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	57	9th August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(484) Syed Minhajuddin Ahmed.	Do. . .	P. L. .	7	11th December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(485) Mr. Samiulla Khan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	25	15th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(486) Messrs. Bhagwandeen and M. A. Razaque.	Do. . .	P. L. .	50	10th August 1925.	Do.

P. L. = *Prospecting Licence*. M. L. = *Mining Lease*.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Balaghat	(487) Mr. C. S. Harris	Manganese	M. L.	67	11th September 1920.	30 years.
Do.	(488) Messrs. Martin & Co.	Do.	P. L.	12	11th December 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(489) Pandit Rewashankar.	Do.	P. L.	69	28th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(490) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do.	P. L.	183	28th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(491) Mr. Samiulla Khan.	Do.	P. L.	2	18th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(492) Do.	Do.	P. L.	59	15th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(493) Do.	Do.	P. L.	63	25th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(494) Thakur Nasib Singh.	Do.	P. L.	170	Do.	Do.
Do.	(495) Seth Bhudharsao.	Do.	P.	401	Do.	Do.
Do.	(496) Do.	Do.	P. L.	18	10th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(497) Do.	Do.	P. L.	43	30th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(498) Messrs. Nosherwanji and Ardeshr Brothers.	Do.	P. L.	25	25th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(499) Mr. P. N. Oke	Do.	P. L.	17	Do.	Do.
Do.	(500) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do.	P. L.	22	28th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(501) Pandit Kripashankar.	Do.	P. L.	107	Do.	Do.
Do.	(502) Mr. Syed Minhajuddin Ahmed.	Do.	M. L.	4	30th November 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(503) Mr. G. E. Muller	Do.	M. L.	94	5th October 1925.	5 years.
Do.	(504) Thakur Nasib Singh.	Do.	P. L.	346	16th September 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(505) Mr. Ganpatsao Dhanpatsao.	Do.	P. L.	1	13th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(506) Thakur Nasib Singh.	Do.	P. L.	236	16th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(507) Mr. C. Stanley Harris.	Do.	M. L.	30	19th November 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(508) Mr. Samiulla Khan.	Do.	P. L.	67	20th December 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(509) Seth Budharsao	Do.	P. L.	41	10th August 1925.	Do.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Balaghat .	(510) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Manganese .	P. L. .	100	9th December 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(511) Mr. C. S. Harris	Do. . .	P. L. .	41	18th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(512) Seth Chundlal Sao.	Do. . .	P. L. .	53	13th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(513) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do. . .	P. L. .	78	28th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(514) Messrs. Nilkant Sao & Co.	Do. . .	P. L. .	44	15th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(515) Pandit Kripashankar.	Do. . .	P. L. .	38	5th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(516) Messrs. Nilkant Sao & Co.	Do. . .	P. L. .	148	31st October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(517) Pandit Kripashankar.	Do. . .	P. L. .	57	8th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(518) Rai Sahib L. Chhojuram.	Do. . .	P. L. .	6	19th December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(519) Messrs. Chhotan and Premal.	Do. . .	P. L. .	27	10th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(520) Messrs. Gupta & Sons.	Do. . .	P. L. .	13	26th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(521) Mr. Samiulla Khan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	112	20th December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(522) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	6	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(523) Messrs. Nilkant Sao & Co.	Do. . .	P. L. .	2	21st October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(524) Messrs. Ramnath Baljnath Rusia.	Do. . .	P. L. .	18	22nd November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(525) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	176	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(526) Seth Parmanand Bansidhar.	Do. . .	P. L. .	8	26th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(527) Messrs. Ganpat-sao Dhanpatsao.	Do. . .	P. L. .	12	11th December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(528) Mr. Amritlal P. Trivedi.	Do. . .	P. L. .	35	21st October 1925.	Do.
Dq. .	(529) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	62	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(530) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	47	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(531) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	15	Do.	Do.
Do. .	(532) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	122	16th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(533) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	53	20th December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(534) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	53	19th December 1925.	Do.

P. L. = *Prospecting Licence.* M. L. = *Mining Lease.*

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Balaghat	(535) Messrs. Ramnath Baljnath.	Manganese . .	P. L. .	30	19th December 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(536) Mustt. Munna Bal.	Do. . .	P. L. .	117	11th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(537) Mr. Amritlal P. Trivedi.	Do. . .	P. L. .	67	4th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(538) Mr. P. N. Oke .	Do. . .	P. L. .	29	22nd November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(539) Mustt. Munna Bal.	Do. . .	P. L. .	154	11th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(540) Messrs. Ramnath and Baljnath Rao.	Do. . .	P. L. .	7	9th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(541) Mustt. Munna Bal.	Do. . .	P. L. .	119	Do.	Do.
Do.	(542) Mr. R. P. Mudlair. The Independent Trading Company.	Do. . .	P. L. .	17	12th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(543) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	44	Do.	Do.
Do.	(544) Mr. M. B. Marfatia.	Do. . .	P. L. .	32	22nd December 1925.	Do.
Betul	(545) Bansidhar Ram Niwas.	Coal . . .	M. L. .	105	19th January 1925.	5 years.
Do.	(546) Pandit Kashi Ram.	Do. . .	P. L. .	530	9th March 1925.	1 year.
Bhandara	(547) Seth Jagannath	Manganese . .	P. L. .	45	23rd May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(548) Rai Shahib Gowardhandas.	Do. . .	P. L. .	97	18th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(549) Messrs. M. D'Costa and Gourduh Ganeshlal.	Do. . .	P. L. .	26	4th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(550) Mr. Abdur Rahim Khan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	118	1st April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(551) Messrs. M. D'Costa and Gourduh Ganeshlal.	Do. . .	P. L. .	23	3rd January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(552) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	91	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(553) Mr. Shriram Seth.	Do. . .	P. L. .	2	26th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(554) Messrs. Ganpat-sao and Dhanpatsao.	Do. . .	P. L. .	28	18th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(555) Seth Jagannath.	Do. . .	P. L. .	55	31st March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(556) Mr. Malhar Rao Bhao.	Do. . .	P. L. .	174	2nd November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(557) Mr. Bakaram Singh.	Do. .	P. L. .	69	7th May 1925.	Do.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres	Date of commencement.	Term.
Bhandara .	(558) Mr. Rangya Naidu.	Manganese .	P. L. .	117	21st May 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(559) Lala Jainarain Mohanlal.	Do. .	P. L. .	211	17th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(560) Seth Laxminarain Hardeo.	Do. .	P. L. .	365	20th June 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(561) Mr. Ganeshlal Balbhadar.	Do. .	P. L. .	193	19th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(562) Mr. Bakaram Singh	Do. .	P. L. .	193	14th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(563) Messrs. Ganpat-sao and Dhanpatsao.	Do. .	P. L. .	151	16th March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(564) Mr. S. Rangaya Naidu.	Do. .	P. L. .	132	16th December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(565) Messrs. Ganesh-lal and Balbhadar.	Do. .	P. L. .	547	20th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(566) Mr. Ganpatrao Laxmanrao	Do. .	P. L. .	280	6th May 1925	Do.
Do. .	(567) Messrs. Ganpat-sao and Dhanpatsao.	Do. .	P. L. .	77	11th June 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(568) Messrs. R. K. Chullany and Sons.	Do. .	P. L. .	174	6th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(569) Messrs. Ganpat-sao and Dhanpatsao.	Do. .	P. L. .	39	18th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(570) Lala Baljnath .	Do. .	P. L. .	980	11th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(571) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	89	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(572) Messrs. Nilkant-sao and Company.	Do. .	P. L. .	105	7th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(573) Mr. Parmanand Dayaram.	Do. .	P. L. .	71	10th December 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(574) Mr. Shriram Seth.	Do. .	P. L. .	29	7th August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(575) Mr. M. A. Pasha, Minor.	Do. .	P. L. .	25	25th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(576) Messrs. Yadulal and Bhadulal.	Do. .	P. L. .	14	24th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(577) Messrs. Ganesh-lal and Balbhadar.	Do. .	P. L. .	5	19th May 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(578) Messrs. Ganesh-lal and Balbhadar.	Do. .	P. L. .	240	14th August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(579) R. S. Seth Gowardhandas.	Do. .	P. L. .	26	28th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(580) Mr. Mangal Singh.	Do. .	P. L. .	764	2nd October 1925.	Do.

P. L. = Prospecting Licence. M. L. = Mining Lease.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Bhandara	(581) Messrs. Namdeo Pandurang Dalal's firm.	Manganese	P. L.	218	22nd December 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(582) Messrs. Ganesh-lal and Balbhadar.	Do.	P. L.	14	4th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(583) Messrs. Ganpat-sao and Dhanpatsao.	Do.	P. L.	55	12th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(584) Messrs. Nilkant-sao and Company.	Do.	P. L.	107	28th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(585) Mr. G. R. T. taday.	Do.	P. L.	85	9th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(586) Messrs. Yadulal and Bhadulal.	Do.	P. L.	78	5th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(587) Do.	Do.	P. L.	12	13th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(588) Mr. Samiulla Khan.	Do.	P. L.	38	15th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(589) Mr. P. N. Oke	Do.	P. L.	596	7th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(590) Mr. Mohonlal Birdichand.	Do.	P. L.	70	22nd October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(591) Messrs. Ram-narain and Jagannath.	Do.	P. L.	48	18th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(592) R. S. Seth Gowardhandas.	Do.	P. L.	104	5th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(593) Messrs. Nilkant-sao and Company.	Do.	P. L.	71	7th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(594) Do.	Do.	P. L.	74	8th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(595) R. S. Seth Gowardhandas.	Corundum	P. L.	67	17th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(596) Do.	Do.	P. L.	9	Do.	Do.
Do.	(597) Do.	Do.	P. L.	32	Do.	Do.
Do.	(598) Messrs. Jangara-m and Vithoba.	Manganese	P. L.	372	14th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(599) Mr. Bansidar Ramnivas.	Do.	M. L.	134	15th June 1925.	10 years.
Do.	(600) R. S. Seth Gowardhandas.	Do.	M. L.	33	27th May 1925.	5 years.
Do.	(601) Seth Shriram	Do.	M. L.	4	12th October 1925.	10 years.
Do.	(602) R. S. Seth Gowardhandas.	Do.	M. L.	7	21st September 1925.	5 years.
Bilaspur	(603) Messrs. Agar-wala Brothers.	Mica	P. L. (renewal)	247	25th April 1925.	1 year.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Bilaspur	(604) Messrs. Agarwala Brothers.	Coal	P. L. (renewal)	11,736	1st July 1925.	Up to 8th March 1926. 1 year.
Do.	(605) Messrs. Dunlop Bros. & Co.	Mica	P. L. (renewal)	11	26th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(606) Messrs. Dunlop Bros. & Co.	Coal	P. L.	12,256	1st July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(607) Messrs. Agarwala Brothers.	Mica	P. L.	19	4th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(608) Messrs. Dunlop Bros. & Co.	Coal	P. L. (renewal)	3,376	6th November 1925.	Do.
Chanda	(609) Mr. Vadilal Raghuraji of Bombay.	Do.	P. L.	900	19th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(610) Do.	Do.	P. L.	171	Do.	Do.
Do.	(611) Messrs. Mahara Kishan & Co., of Chhindwara.	Do.	P. L.	639	26th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(612) Do.	Do.	P. L.	668	5th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(613) Messrs. Hajibhoy Lalji & Co., Proprietors, Mahakali Coal Mine, Chanda.	Do.	P. L.	160	5th November 1925.	Do.
Chhindwara	(614) Chaitram Sao Tikaram Sao.	Do.	P. L.	95	22nd March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(615) Seth Hazarimal Bazar.	Manganese	P. L.	73	16th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(616) Mr. H. S. Zahuruddin, Wakil and Contractor.	Coal	P. L.	172	29th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(617) Do.	Do.	P. L.	389	14th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(618) Do.	Do.	P. L.	383	Do.	Do.
Do.	(619) Do.	Do.	P. L.	120	Do.	Do.
Do.	(620) Mr. Samtulla Khan, Malsuzar.	Manganese	P. L.	68	17th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(621) Captain Leonard Newton.	Coal	P. L.	119	2nd February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(622) Mr. Neor Mohamad Mitha.	Do.	P. L.	196	10th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(623) Seth Hazarimal Bazar.	Manganese	P. L.	71	9th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(624) R. S. Mathura Prasad Motilal & Co.	Coal	P. L.	191	2nd October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(625) Mr. Pritul Narayan Muterji.	Do.	P. L.	242	16th June 1925.	Do.

P. L. = Prospecting License. M. L. = Mining Lease.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Chhindwara	(626) Messrs. M. D'osta and Gouridatta Ganeshlal.	Manganese . .	P. L. . .	57	23rd September 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(627) Mr. Ramji Gangajli, Contractor.	Do. . .	P. L. . .	69	24th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(628) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. . .	4	Do.	Do.
Do.	(629) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. . .	41	2nd October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(630) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. . .	60	Not given .	Do.
Do.	(631) Thakur Randhir Shah, Jagairdar.	Coal . . .	P. L. . .	445	24th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(632) Mr. Hussain Khan, Contractor.	Manganese . .	P. L. . .	43	5th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(633) Thakur Randhir Shah, Jagirdar.	Coal . . .	P. L. . .	130	24th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(634) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. . .	621	24th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(635) Do. .	Manganese . .	P. L. . .	443	5th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(636) Hussain Khan, Contractor.	Do. . .	P. L. . .	93	23th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(637) Not available	Do. . .	P. L. . .	85	2nd November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(638) Rao Sahib D. Laxmi Narayan, Kamptee.	Do. . .	P. L. . .	524	4th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(639) Mr. Ramji Gangajli, Contractor.	Do. . .	P. L. . .	110	2nd December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(640) Messrs. B. Fouzdar & Bros.	Do. . .	M. L. . .	14	8th January 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(641) Seth Kanhayalal Laxmi Narayan.	Do. . .	M. L. . .	148	22nd May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(642) Messrs. B. Fouzdar & Bros.	Do. . .	P. L. . .	17	19th March 1925.	Do.
Drug .	(643) Seth Ramprasad Laxmi Narayan of Kamptee.	Galena . . .	P. L. . .	14	28th November 1925.	Do.
Hoshangabad	(644) Pandit Thakur Prasad Awasthy, Banker, Betul.	Coal . . .	P. L. . . (renewal)	226	12th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(645) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. . .	50	27th January 1925.	Do.
Jubbulpore	(646) Messrs. Gupta & Sons.	Manganese . .	P. L. . .	45	28th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(647) Mr. P. C. Datta.	Do. . .	P. L. . .	151	22nd June 1925.	Do.

P. L. = Prospecting Licence, M. L. = Mining lease.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Jubbulpore.	(648) Mr. C. Stanley Harris.	Manganese .	M. L. .	31	23rd March 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(649) Messrs. Gupta & Sons.	Do. . .	P. L. .	13	16th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(650) Mr. M. B. Mar-	Do. . .	P. L. .	94	3rd February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(651) Amin-	Do. . .	P. L. .	3	6th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(652) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	41	Do.	Do.
Do.	(653) Seth Hazarimal.	Do. . .	P. L. .	69	6th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(654) Messrs. Byramji Pestonji.	Do. . .	M. L. .	16	24th February 1925.	5 years.
Do.	(655) Ganpat Sao Dhanpat Sao.	Do. . .	P. L. .	28	6th February 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(656) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	24	Do.	Do.
Do.	(657) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	52	Do.	Do.
Do.	(658) Laxminarain Hardeo.	Do. . .	P. L. .	153	18th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(659) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	89	5th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(660) Madhulal Doogar & Sons.	Do. . .	P. L. .	15	18th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(661) Messrs. Ganpat Rao Laxman Rao.	Do. . .	P. L. .	60	28th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(662) Mr. Chakurilal Pathak.	Bauxite .	P. L. .	22	5th May 1925	Do.
Do.	(663) Messrs. Gupta & Sons.	Manganese .	P. L. .	153	23rd August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(664) Mr. Gupaldas Nemichand.	Do. . .	P. L. .	11	28rd July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(665) Messrs. Gupta & Sons.	Do. . .	P. L. .	128	8th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(666) Sukhdeo Prasad Radhakishan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	262	14th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(667) Do.	Do. . .	M. L. .	14	5th September 1925.	80 years.
Do.	(668) Messrs. Gupta & Sons.	Do. . .	P. L. .	68	3rd August 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(669) Do.	Do. . .	P. L. .	134	8th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(670) Mr. P. C. Datt .	Do. . .	M. L. .	3	2nd October 1925.	80 years.
Do.	(671) Messrs. Sukhdeo Prasad Radhakishan.	Do. . .	P. L. .	327	16th December 1925.	1 year.

P. L. = *Prospecting License.*M. L. = *Mining Lease.*

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Jubbulpore.	(672) Mr. C. Stanley Harris.	Manganese .	P. L. .	75	19th November 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(673) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	12	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(674) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	72	7th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(675) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	35	2nd November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(676) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	127	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(677) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	93	11th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(678) Seth Pratap Laxman Rao.	Do. .	P. L. .	102	9th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(679) Mr. P. C. Bose .	Do. .	P. L. .	90	16th December 1925.	Do.
Mandla .	(680) Messrs. Debi Prasad Bania of Raipur and Chhedilal Choudhury.	Mica .	P. L. .	86	4th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(681) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	14	7th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(682) Messrs. J. Reid and Russell of Jubbulpore.	Copper, Lead, Mica, Zinc and Manganese.	P. L. .	399	31st October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(683) Messrs. D. B. Ballabidass Mannolal Kanhaiyalal of Jubbulpore.	Manganese, Tin, Zinc, Copper and Mica.	P. L. .	100	10th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(684) Messrs. Punamchand Kishanlal of Seoni.	Manganese .	P. L. .	99	22nd October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(685) Messrs. J. Reid and Russell of Jubbulpore.	Mica, Zinc, Copper, Lead, Silver and Manganese.	P. L. .	10	2nd September 1925.	Do.
Nagpur .	(686) Goswami Moheshpuril, Nagpur.	Manganese .	P. L. .	133	2nd February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(687) Seth Kanhyalal Laxminarain Bagdi of Sindi.	Do. .	P. L. .	875	11th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(688) Mr. Ganpat Rao Laxman Rao of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	168	19th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(689) Mr. M. A. Bazaq of Kamptee.	Do. .	P. L. .	16	2nd March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(690) B. S. Minamall Nandlal of Chhindwara.	Do. .	P. L. .	44	28th February 1925.	Do.
	(691) Messrs. Hariram and Mandram of Rewra.	Do. .	P. L. .	21	23rd February 1925.	Do.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

District.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Nagpur	(692) Seth Raghunathdas Bharuka of Kamptee.	Manganese .	P. L. .	64	12th April 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(693) Do.	Do. .	P. L. .	292	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(694) Messrs. Hariram and Maniram of Hewra.	Do. .	P. L. .	56	1st April 1925	Do.
Do.	(695) Seth Jagannath of Tumsar.	Do. .	P. L. .	46	3rd February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(696) Messrs. Maharaj Kisan and Company.	Do. .	P. L. .	236	28th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(697) Mr. Nur Mohammad Mitha of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	272	10th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(698) Hariram and Maniram of Hewra.	Do. .	P. L. .	62	23rd February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(699) Mr. S. Rangaya Naidu of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	63	2nd January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(700) Messrs. Hariram and Maniram of Hewra.	Do. .	P. L. .	48	23rd February 1925.	Do.]
Do.	(701) Do.	Do. .	P. L. .	48	27th February 1925.	Do.]
Do.	(702) Mr. Brach hah 1, Pleader, Kamptee.	Do. .	P. L. .	52	4th February 1925.	Do."
Do.	(703) Seth Laxminarain Hardeo of Kamptee.	Do. .	P. L. .	133	10th February 1925.	Do.]
Do.	(704) Messrs. Gupta and Sons, Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	30	3rd August 1925.	Do.]
Do.	(705) Sir M. B. Dadabhoj, Barrister-at-Law, Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	50	13th July 1925.	Do.]
Do.	(706) Mr. Nur Muhammad Mitha of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	245	10th August 1925.	Do.]
Do.	(707) Mr. M. A. Razaq of Kamptee.	Do. .	P. L. .	79	3rd September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(708) Lala Jainarain Mohonlal, Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	68	17th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(709) Mr. S. Vinalk Rao, Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	400	28rd January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(710) Sir M. B. Dadabhoj, Barrister-at-Law, Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	103	18th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(711) Do.	Do. .	P. L. .	213	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(712) Mr. S. Vinalk Rao, Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	6	6th May 1925	Do.
Do.	(713) Seth R. K. Chhullani and Sons, Kamptee.	Do. .	P. L. .	344	6th June 1925	Do.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Nagpur	(714) Mr. Jumadas Potdar, Nagpur.	Manganese .	P. L. .	57	17th August 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(715) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	85	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(716) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	252	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(717) Seth Raghunathdas Bharuka of Kamptee.	Do. . .	P. L. .	11	12th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(718) The Turabali Manwarali Syndicate, Nagpur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	38	14th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(719) Mr. Moheshpuri of Nagpur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	350	21st April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(720) Messrs. Kalloram and Company, Kamptee.	Do. . .	P. L. .	16	30th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(721) Mr. S. Vinalk Rao, Nagpur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	9	8th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(722) Mr. Nurmahmad Mitha, Nagpur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	294	10th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(723) Goswami Moheshpuri, Nagpur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	103	12th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(724) Lala Jainarain Mohonlal, Nagpur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	59	17th March 1925.	Do.
Do.	(725) Seth Gopaladas Nemiohand, Kamptee.	Do. . .	P. L. .	93	10th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(726) Messrs. R. K. Chhullani and Sons, Kamptee.	Do. . .	P. L. .	56	6th June 1925	Do.
Do.	(727) Messrs. B. Foudr and Brothers of Nagpur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	80	4th May 1925	Do.
Do.	(728) Mr. P. M. Markar, Bombay.	Do. . .	P. L. .	181	30th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(729) Seth Raghunathdas Bharuka, Kamptee.	Do. . .	P. L. .	155	12th April 1925.	Do.
Do.	(730) Messrs. Nasarwanji and Ardeahir Brothers, Tirol.	Do. . .	P. L. .	9	22nd October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(731) The Firm of Namdeo Pandurang and others of Bhandara.	Do. . .	P. L. .	60	28th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(732) Messrs. Hariram and Maniram of Hewra.	Do. . .	P. L. .	169	18th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(733) The Coal Bunkering and Shipping Company, Calcutta.	Do. . .	P. L. .	593	3rd December 1925.	Do.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Nagpur	(734) Messrs. Kashiram and Patiram of Hewra.	Manganese .	P. L. .	101	18th June 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(735) Mr. Erachsha, Pleader, Kamptee.	Do. .	P. L. .	56	3rd September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(736) Messrs. N Rustomji and M. Chakrabarty of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	93	19th February 1925.	Do.
Do.	(737) Mr. M. A. Razaq, Kamptee.	Do. .	P. L. .	218	6th June 1925	Do.
Do.	(738) Mr. Laxman Damodhar Lele of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	49	2nd September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(739) Messrs. Puranlal and Syed Azimuddin of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	102	13th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(740) Mr. Akbarali Manwarali of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	69	6th June 1925.	Do.
Do.	(741) Messrs. N. Rustomji and M. Chakrabarty of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	25	12th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(742) Do. .	Do. .	P. L. .	27	28th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(743) Dr. B. D. Vyas, Kamptee.	Do. .	P. L. .	20	26th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(744) Mr. Jetha Radha of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	144	8th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(745) Seth Bhopat, Rao Malguzar, Seoni.	Do. .	P. L. .	116	24th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(746) Messrs Gupta & Sons of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	150	29th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(747) Messrs. N. Rustomji and M. Chakrabarty of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	10	28th September 1925.	Do.
Do.]	(749) Messrs. Gupta and Sons of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	97	21st September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(749) Mr. Sayad Hefzul Raquib of Walgaon.	Do. .	P. L. .	64	14th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(750) Seth Shuklan Hazarimal of Kamptee.	Do. .	P. L. .	20	18th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(751) Messrs. Puranlal Bapusa and Syed Azimuddin of Nagpur.	Do. .	P. L. .	31	13th May 1925.	Do.
Do.	(752) Sir M. B. Dadabhoi, Har.-at-Law, Nagpur.	Coal .	P. L. .	802	3rd December 1925.	Do.

P. L. = *Prospecting Licence.* M. L. = *Mining Lease.*

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Nagpur	(753) Messrs. Purnalal Bapusao and Syed Azimuddin of Nagpur.	Manganese	P. L.	230	13th May 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(754) Mr. Shamji Narainji, Ramtek.	Do.	P. L.	78	5th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(755) Do.	Do.	P. L.	17	24th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(756) Messrs. M. D' Costa and Goredutt Ganeshlal, Nagpur.	Do.	P. L.	186	7th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(757) Mr. Shamji Narainji, Ramtek.	Do.	P. L.	39	5th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(758) Messrs. Ganpat-sao and Dhanpatsao of Andhergaon.	Do.	P. L.	78	18th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(759) Mr. Shamji Narainji, Ramtek.	Do.	P. L.	57	24th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(760) Seth Akbarall Manwarall of Nagpur.	Do.	P. L.	10	17th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(761) Messrs. Bholanathdas & Co., Calcutta.	Do.	P. L.	44	16th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(762) Seth Raghunathdas Bharuka of Kamptee.	Do.	P. L.	234	10th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(763) Goswami Moheshpuri, Nagpur.	Do.	P. L.	150	18th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(764) B. S. Seth Gowardhandas of Tumsar.	Do.	P. L.	3	16th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(765) Mr. Govind Bagho Labade of Ramtek.	Do.	P. L.	230	15th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(766) Mr. S. Vinalk Rao of Nagpur.	Do.	P. L.	78	30th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(767) Mr. K. S. Muhammad Yakub, Kamptee.	Do.	P. L.	26	18th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(768) Seth Mohonlal Bedrichand, Kamptee.	Do.	P. L.	75	6th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(769) Messrs. Gupta and Sons, Nagpur.	Do.	P. L.	39	29th October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(770) Mr. Ganpat Rao Laxman Rao of Nagpur.	Do.	P. L.	97	14th November 1925.	Do.
Do.	(771) Khan Sahib Muhammad Yakub of Kamptee.	Do.	P. L.	551	18th November 1925.	Do.

P. L. = Prospecting License, M. L. = Mining Lease.

CENTRAL PROVINCES—*contd.*

District.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Nagpur .	(772) Messrs. Bholanathdas & Co., Calcutta.	Manganese .	P. L. .	9	14th November 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(773) Messrs. Gupta & Sons of Nagpur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	27	29th October 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(774) Messrs. Hariram and Maniram of Hwra.	Do. . .	P. L. .	93	17th November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(775) Sir M. B. Dadabhoi, Bar.-at-Law of Nagpur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	145	18th July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(776) Goewami Moheshpuri of Nagpur.	Do. . .	M. L. .	77	17th February 1925.	5 years.
Do. .	(777) Do. .	Do. . .	M. L. .	35	17th February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(778) Mr. Shamji Narainji.	Do. . .	M. L. .	14	23rd February 1925.	15 years.
Do. .	(779) The Central Provinces Manganese Ore Co., of Nagpur.	Do. . .	M. L. . Supplementary.	17	4th March 1925.	Will expire with the original lease to which it is supplementary.
Do. .	(780) Seth Laxminarain Hardeo, Kamptee.	Do. . .	M. L. .	43	8th April 1925.	5 years.
Do. .	(781) Bai Sahib Seth Gowardhandas, Tumsar.	Do. . .	M. L. .	33	27th May 1925.	15 years.
Do. .	(782) Goewami Moheshpuri of Nagpur.	Do. . .	M. L. .	14	5th November 1925.	10 years.
Do. .	(783) Seth Gopaldas Nemichand, Kamptee.	Do. . .	M. L. .	26	13th November 1925.	3 years.
Do. .	(784) Bai Sahib Seth Gowardhandas of Tumsar.	Do. . .	M. L. .	37	27th May 1925.	30 years.
Do. .	(785) Syed Hifzul Raqulb, Malguzar of Walgaon.	Do. . .	M. L. .	48	14th August 1925.	10 years.
Narsingpur	(786) Mr. C. Stanley Harris of Balaghat.	Copper . .	M. L. .	222	21st May 1925.	30 years.
Seoni .	(787) Seth Parmanand Bansidher.	Manganese .	P. L. .	244	8th July 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(788) Do. .	Do. . .	P. L. .	50	14th March 1925.	Do.
Wardha .	(789) Krishnarao Anandraso Meghe of Borgaon tahsil and dist. Wardha.	Do. . .	P. L. .	145	27th February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(790) Do. .	Copper . .	P. L. .	144	27th February 1925.	Do.

P. L. = Prospecting License. M. L. = Mining Lease.

MADRAS.

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Anantapur .	(791) Nabl Sahib of Hindupur.	Barytes . .	P. L. .	22-25	1st September 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(792) The N. Anantapur Gold Mines Co., Ltd.	Gold . . .	P. L. .	1,616	21st July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(793) Do.	Do. . .	M. L. .	1,604	*	30 years.
Bellary .	(794) M. R. Ry. A. Pitchayya Nayudu.	Manganese .	P. L. .	640	24th September 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(795) K. Ramchandra.	Do. . .	P. L. .	107-36	10th July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(796) Do.	Clay . . .	P. L. .	200	15th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(797) K. Abdul Hye.	Manganese .	M. L. .	46-30	30th April 1925.	30 years.
Do. .	(798) Vegarazu Venkatasubbayya Pantulu.	Do. . .	P. L. .	2,979	23rd November 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(799) A. E. Robinson, Esq.	Do. . .	P. L. .	451-77	8th July 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(800) Vegarazu Venkatasubbayya.	Do. . .	P. L. .	2-05	15th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(801) B. Ismail Sahib.	Do. . .	P. L. .	161-3	3rd November 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(802) K. Abdul Hye.	Do. . .	P. L. .	1,503-16	8th April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(803) A. Pitchayya Naidu.	Do. . .	M. L. .	360	5th August 1925.	6 months.
Cuddapah .	(804) Mysore Dev. Syndicate.	Asbestos . .	P. L. .	30-51	9th November 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(805) Nabl Sahib of Hindupur.	White clay .	M. L. .	6-94	†	5 years.
Do. .	(806) A. Ghose of Calcutta.	Do. . .	P. L. .	127-58	22nd July 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(807) K. Venkatesa of Thumkur.	Do. . .	P. L. .	39-65	9th November 1925.	Do.
Kurnool .	(808) V. Venkatasubbayya.	Do. . .	M. L. .	22-25	2nd March 1925.	30 years.
Do. .	(809) V. Venkatasubbayya.	Barytes . .	M. L. .	1-45	2nd March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(810) B. P. Sesha Reddi.	Do. . .	M. L. .	1-55	2nd February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(811) Do.	Do. . .	M. L. .	45-50	2nd March 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(812) Do.	Manganese .	M. L. .	46-00	2nd February 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(813) E. H. Rushton	Iron-ore . .	P. L. .	53-06	30th October 1924.	1 year.

P. L. = Prospecting Licence.

M. L. = Mining Lease.

* Lease not yet executed.

† Not yet commenced.

MADRAS - *contd.*

District.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Kurnool	(814) V. Venkatasubbayya.	Barytes	P. L.	6-00	11th August 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(815) Do.	Do.	P. L.	4-00	Do.	Do.
Malabar	(816) H. W. Perry	Gold	M. L.	160-00	25th November 1925.	20 years.
Nellore	(817) The Madras Mica Company Ltd., Gundur.	Mica	M. L.	51-56	4th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(818) M. R. Ry. K. C. Narasimhachari.	Do.	M. L.	190-48	28th November 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(819) Do.	Do.	M. L.	117-39	11th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(820) The Krishna Mining Company, Gundur.	Do.	M. L.	71-13	11th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(821) Do.	Do.	M. L.	175-76	Do.	Do.
Do.	(822) S. V. Subba Reddi Garu.	Do.	P. L.	87-20	12th August 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(823) The Sankara Mining Syndicate, Nellore.	Do.	M. L.	3-52	17th June 1925.	30 years.
Do.	(824) P. Chenga Reddi of Nellore.	Do.	M. L.	127-80	28th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(825) C. Venkatarama Chetti of Nillatur.	Do.	P. L.	27-73	Do.	1 year.
Do.	(826) Y. Subba Reddi of Getlapalem.	Do.	P. L.	6-29	27th July 1925.	Do.
Do.	(827) V. Lakshmi Narasayya.	Do.	P. L.	53-86	1st September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(828) Do.	Do.	P. L.	9-63	Do.	Do.
Do.	(829) I. Rainsubba Reddi.	Do.	M. L.	3-96	1st July 1925	30 years.
Do.	(830) Do.	Do.	M. L.	12-75	18th August 1925.	Do.
Do.	(831) S. V. Subba Reddi Garu.	Do.	P. L.	16-03	12th August 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(832) P. Chenga Reddi, Nellore.	Garnet	P. L.	54-79	13th December 1925.	Do.
Do.	(833) P. Venkatasubba Reddi of Gudur.	Mica	P. L.	56-75	28th September 1925.	Do.
Do.	(834) V. Venkatasubbayya Nayudu of Gudur.	Not available	P. L.	15-03	31st October 1925.	Do.
Do.	(835) C. Venkatarama Chetti, Nillatur.	Mica	M. L.	6-52	28th September 1925.	30 years.
Salem	(836) R. Alagappa Mudaliyar.	Corundum	M. L.	677-70	24th September 1924.	Do.

P. L. = *Prospecting License.*M. L. = *Mining Lease.*

MADRAS—*contd.*

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Salem .	(837) S. Srinivasa-raghavan.	Iron, Chromite and Manganese.	P. L. .	1,220.34	30th March 1925.	1 year.
The Nilgiris	(838) A. H. Gaston .	Mica . . .	M. L. .	46.00	9th January 1925.	29 years.
Do. .	(839) F. W. Mansfield and partners.	Do. . . .	P. L. .	50.00	21st October 1925.	1 year.
Do. .	(840) Do. .	Do. . . .	P. L. .	469.08	16th May 1925.	Do.

NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE.

Hazara .	(841) R. B. Rocha Ram & Sons.	Coal and carbonaceous clay.	P. L. .	4	5th December 1925.	1 year.
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PUNJAB.

Attock .	(842) Whitehall Petroleum Corporation Limited.	Mineral oil . .	P. L. .	2,016	6th March 1925.	1 year.
Jhelum .	(843) Messrs. Atma Ram Sant Ram Kapur.	Coal	M. L. .	420	2nd October 1925.	30 years.
Do. .	(844) R. Rahimullah Khan of Darapur.	Do.	M. L. .	60	1st April 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(845) Pandit Gian Chand, Dandot.	Do.	M. L. .	117.25	1st June 1925	Do.
Do. .	(846) M. Ferose Khan and Pir Star Shah, Betucha.	Do.	M. L. .	28	1st January 1925.	5 years.
Do. .	(847) Pandit Gian Chand.	Do.	P. L. .	45.18	1st June 1925	1 year.
Do. .	(848) Do. .	Do.	P. L. .	89.3	10th August 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(849) Bhai Hazuramal, Dandot.	Do.	P. L. .	8.75	1st June 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(850) Do. .	Do.	P. L. .	23.5	Do. .	Do.
Do. .	(851) Do. .	Do.	P. L. .	22.75	16th September 1925.	Do.
Do. .	(852) Do. .	Do.	P. L. .	18.3	Do. .	Do.

P. L. = Prospecting Licence. M. L. = Mining Lease.

PUNJAB—contd.

DISTRICT.	Grantee.	Mineral.	Nature of grant.	Area in acres.	Date of commencement.	Term.
Jhelum	(853) L. Gopal Das, Contractor.	Coal . . .	P. L. .	164.89	2nd October 1925.	1 year.
Do.	(854) Do.	Do. . . .	P. L. .	144.12	Do. .	Do.
Do.	(855) L. Charanjit Lal, Contractor.	Do. . . .	P. L. .	80	22nd May 1925.	Do.
Mianwali	(856) R. G. Tugwood, London.	Mineral oil .	P. L. .	1,792	14th January 1925.	Do.
Do.	(857) Messrs. C. Beven Petman & Ishar Das, Kapur.	Coal . . .	M. L. .	455	11th June 1925.	30 years.
Rawalpindi.	(858) Whitehall Petroleum Corporation Ltd.	Mineral oil .	P. L. .	2,816	3rd March 1925.	1 year.
Shahpur	(859) Attock Oil Company Ltd., Rawalpindi.	Do. . . .	P. L. .	7,040	29th October 1925.	2 years.

P. L. = Prospecting License. M. L. = Mining Lease.

SUMMARY.

Province.	Exploring License	Prospecting License.	Mining Lease.	Total of each Province.
Ajmer-Merwara	13	2	15
Assam	22	1	23
Baluchistan	1	1	1	3
Bengal	7	..	7
Bihar and Orissa	9	17	25
Bombay	6	2	8
Burma	229	16	245
Central Provinces	400	55	464
Madras	28	22	50
North-West Frontier Province	1	..	1
Punjab	13	5	18
Total of each kind and grand total for 1925.	1	737	121	859
TOTAL FOR 1924	1	654	114	769

CLASSIFICATION OF LICENSES AND LEASES.

TABLE 41.—*Prospecting Licenses and Mining Leases granted in Ajmer-Merwara during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Areas in acres.	Mineral.
Prospecting Licenses.			
Ajmer	11	43·83	Mica.
Beawar	1	6·05	Graphite.
Do.	1	0·22	Mica.
TOTAL	13		

Mining Leases.

Ajmer	2	6·02	Mica.
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TABLE 42.—*Prospecting Licenses and Mining Lease granted in Assam during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.
Prospecting Licenses.			
Cachar	2	13,883·58	Mineral oil.
Khasi and Jaintia Hills	1	2,518	Do.
Lakhimpur	5	27,520	Oil.
Do.	2	13,120	Coal.
Naga Hills	2	11,392	Mineral oil.
Nowgong	4	9,658	Do.
Sadiya Frontier Tract	1	2,240	Do.
Sibsagar	2	7,840	Coal and oil.
Sylhet	3	18,241	Mineral oil.
TOTAL	22		

Mining Lease.

Khasi and Jaintia Hills	1	5,817·6	Coal.
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TABLE 43.—*Exploring and Prospecting Licenses and Mining Lease granted in Baluchistan during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.

Exploring License.

Kalat	1	..	Mineral oil.
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Prospecting License.

Kalat	1	3,200	Mineral oil.
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Mining Lease.

Zhob	1	10	Chromite.
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TABLE 44.—*Prospecting Licenses granted in Bengal during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.

Prospecting Licenses.

Chittagong	1	3,061.98	Mineral oil.
Chittagong Hill Tracts	6	34,547.24	Do.
TOTAL	7		

TABLE 45.—*Prospecting Licenses and Mining Leases granted in Bihar and Orissa during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.
Prospecting Licenses.			
Patna	1	3,552	All minerals.
Singbhum	1	340.94	Limestone.
Do.	1	611.00	Iron ore.
Do.	3	361.20	All minerals.
Do.	1	332.50	Chromite.
Do.	1	212.80	Manganese.
TOTAL	8		
Mining Leases.			
Hazaribagh	1	..	Mica.
Santal Parganas	13	40.76	Coal.
Singbhum	1	1,139.76	Iron and manganese.
Do.	1	6.79	Yellow ochre.
Do.	1	462.71	Manganese.
TOTAL	17		

TABLE 46.—*Prospecting Licences and Mining Leases granted in the Bombay Presidency during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.
Prospecting Licenses.			
Belgaum	1	1,072.92	Bauxite.
Do.	1	320	Manganese.
Kanara	2	1,848	Do.
Sukkur	1	6,008.52	Mineral oil.
West Khandesh	1	79.17	Coal, white stone, iron, mica, and oil.
TOTAL	6		

TABLE 46.—*Prospecting Licenses and Mining Leases granted in the Bombay Presidency during the year 1925—contd.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.
Mining Leases.			
Kanara	2	126.3	Manganese.

TABLE 47.—*Prospecting Licenses and Mining Leases granted in Burma during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral
Prospecting Licenses.			
Akyab	5	16,430	Natural petroleum.
Do.	1	5,120	Natural petroleum and its associated hydrocarbons.
Amherst	2	2,560	Sulphides.
Do.	1	1,280	All minerals.
Do.	5	6,157	All minerals except oil.
Do.	2	3,048	Antimony.
Do.	2	16,800	Mineral oil.
Bhamo	1	826	All minerals except natural petroleum and jade.
Kyaukpyu	1	1,280	Natural petroleum.
Kyaukse	2	8,608	Minerals other than mineral oil.
Lower Chindwin	4	8,768	Natural petroleum,
Magwe	18	20,319	Do.
Mandalay	1	1,997	All minerals except oil.
Meiktila	1	307	Galena.
Do.	2	4,480	All minerals except oil.
Do.	1	1,850	Natural petroleum.
Mergui	16	9,950.26	Tin.
Do.	18	16,744.90	All minerals except oil.
Do.	24	15,643.92	Tin and allied minerals.
Do.	1	657.9	Cassiterite and allied mineral.

TABLE 47.—*Prospecting Licenses and Mining Leases granted in Burma during the year 1925—contd.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.
Prospecting Licenses—contd.			
Mergui	1	629.8	Tin and wolfram.
Do.	3	3,189.76	Tin and other minerals.
Minbu	1	352.64	All minerals.
Do.	3	3,846.4	Natural petroleum.
Myingyan	12	18,626.84	Do.
Myitkyina	1	8.32	All minerals except oil.
Northern Shan States	1	274.56	All minerals and precious stones.
Pakokku	6	19,706.8	Natural petroleum.
Shwebo	6	26,984.0	Do.
Southern Shan States	9	17,062.4	All minerals except oil.
Tavoy	4	1,817.6	Tin.
Do.	37	18,757.6	Tin and wolfram.
Do.	7	4,595.2	All minerals except oil.
Do.	2	825.6	Tin and allied minerals.
Do.	1	396.8	Tin and other minerals.
Thaton	3	3,183.6	All minerals except oil.
Thayetmyo	16	25,964.8	Natural petroleum.
Do.	1	2,444.8	Chromite.
Toungoo	1	640	All minerals except oil.
Upper Chindwin	4	8,160	Natural petroleum.
Do.	1	704	Coal.
Yamethin	1	1,555.2	All minerals except oil.
TOTAL	229		

Mining Leases.

Amherst	1	12,800	Oil shale.
Do.	1	269	Antimony.
Mergui	1	384	Tin ore.
Do.	1	296.32	Tin and allied minerals.
Northern Shan States	2	348.16	Iron ore.
Pakokku	1	2,560	Natural petroleum.
Tavoy	1	144	Tin.
Do.	6	3,248.32	Tin and wolfram.
Do.	1	99.84	Cassiterite.
Do.	1	179.84	Cassiterite, wolframite and gold.
TOTAL	16		

TABLE 48.—*Prospecting Licenses and Mining Leases granted in the Central Provinces during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.

Prospecting Licenses.

Balaghat	185	18,705	Manganese.
Betul	1	530	Coal.
Bhandara	52	7,611	Manganese.
Bilaspur	3	277	Mica.
Do.	3	27,368	Coal.
Chanda	5	2,538	Do.
Chhindwara	12	3,103	Do.
Do	15	1,758	Manganese.
Drug	1	14	Galena.
Hoshangabad	2	276	Coal.
Jubbulpore	29	2,526	Manganese
Do.	1	22	Bauxite.
Mandla	2	100	Mica.
Do.	3	509	Copper, lead, mica, zinc and manganese.
Do.	1	99	Manganese.
Nagpur	89	10,675	Do.
Do.	1	802	Coal.
Seoni	2	294	Manganese.
Wardha	1	145	Do.
Do.	1	144	Copper.
TOTAL	409		

Mining Leases.

Balaghat	33	1,821	Manganese.
Betul	1	105	Coal.
Bhandara	4	178	Manganese.
Chhindwara	2	162	Do.
Jubbulpore	4	64	Do.
Nagpur	10	344	Do.
Narsingpur	1	222	Copper.
Total	55		

TABLE 49.—*Prospecting Licenses and Mining Leases granted in Madras during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.
Prospecting Licenses.			
Anantapur	1	22.25	Barytes.
Do.	1	1,616	Gold.
Bellary	7	5,844.64	Manganese.
Do.	1	200	Clay.
Cuddapah	1	30.51	Asbestos.
Do.	2	167.23	Barytes.
Kurnool	1	53.06	Iron ore.
Do.	2	10.0	Barytes.
Nellore	7	257.49	Mica.
Do.	1	54.79	Garnet.
Do.	1	15.03	..
Salem	1	1,220.34	Iron, chromite and manganese.
The Nilgiris	2	519.08	Mica.
TOTAL	28		

Mining Leases.

Anantapur	1	1,604	Gold.
Bellary	2	406.3	Manganese.
Cuddayah	1	6.94	White clay.
Kurnool	4	70.75	Barytes.
Do.	1	46	Manganese.
Malabar	1	160	Gold.
Nellore	10	760.87	Mica.
Salem	1	677.70	Corundum
The Nilgiris	1	46	Mica.
Total	22		

TABLE 50.—*Prospecting License granted in North-West Frontier Province during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.
Prospecting License.			
Hazara	1	4	Coal and carbonaceous clay.

TABLE 51.—*Prospecting Licenses and Mining Leases granted in the Punjab during the year 1925.*

DISTRICT.	1925.		
	No.	Area in acres.	Mineral.
Prospecting Licenses.			
Attock	1	20.16	Mineral oil.
Jhelum	9	594.61	Coal.
Mianwali	1	1,792	Mineral oil.
Rawalpindi	1	2,816	Do.
Shahpur	1	7,040	Do.
TOTAL	13		

Mining Leases.

Jhelum	4	625.25	Coal.
Mianwali	1	455	Do.
TOTAL	5		

THE METAMORPHIC ROCKS AND INTRUSIVE GRANITE OF
CHHOTA UDEPUR STATE. BY G. V. HOBSON, B.SC.,
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Survey of India.* (With Plates 21 to 24.)

Introduction.

The metamorphic rocks in Chhota Udepur appear to be confined to the north-western corner of the State, covering the greater portion of the Kadwal ("Kadval") *taluk*. The granite is much more extensive, but this paper is confined to a description of an area of 152 square miles, including the whole of the Kadwal *taluk* and parts of the Jetpur and Tejgad *taluks*. This area is bounded on the north by the State boundary; on the west by a line running north from near the junction of the Orsang and Sukhi Rivers, to the hills south of Kadwal and thence west to the State boundary; by the Orsang River to the south; and by a line running north-west from Kasarmari, north of Chhota Udepur, to the boundary of the State north of Ghonta.

This area was surveyed by W. T. Blanford and the results published in 1869 in his memoir on "The Geology of the Taptee and Lower Narbudda Valleys."¹ Blanford de-

scribes most of the northern area of the State as consisting of a granitoid gneiss but in the north-western corner round "Kadval" he describes metamorphic rocks consisting of quartzites, conglomerates and slates, to which he gave the name Champaner beds, from the old town of Champaner (22° 29': 73° 32') in the Panch Mahals, formerly the capital of the Mahomedan kingdom of Gujarat.

P. N. Bose covered the southern and eastern parts of the State, the results having been published in his memoir on "The Geology of the Lower Narbada Valley between Nimawar and Kawant."² The south-eastern corner of the area under report is covered by the latter memoir, in which however there is no detailed des-

¹ *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. VI, Pt. 3.

² *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XXI, Pt. 1.

cription of the gneiss, which the map shows to cover the whole stretch.

E. J. Beer in his paper entitled "Notes on the Rocks from Pavagarh to Dohad"¹ discusses the peculiar rock types occurring in what he aptly describes as the "retort-shaped hilly area" which lies south-west of Pavagarh Hill, the delivery pipe of the retort constituting the hill range south of Kadwal in the north-western corner of Chhota Udepur State. L. L. Fermor² visited the Champaner area in 1905 and was struck "by the extraordinary lithological similarity of the Champaner rocks to those of Jabalpur and their consequent probable Dharwar age." This is a presumption which the writer sees no reason to doubt.

Topography.

The topography of the area presents three aspects which are closely related to the geological formations. With the exception of the extreme north-western corner, constituting the Kadwal taluk, the area examined is granite country which presents to view a very characteristic topography. This may be described as closely resembling park land, for the most part flat, with streamlets running in shallow valleys and two main rivers, the Orsang and the Sukhi, flowing between low banks.

This park land is broken at intervals by typical hog-backed hills of granite ranging up to 500 to 600 feet above the general level and presenting characteristic curved surfaces due to weathering by exfoliation, or a tumbled heap of rounded boulders, or some combination of the two. In addition to these granite hills there are a few sharp peaks, such as Hill "1028" just south of Narvaina, five miles south-south-east of Kadwal, consisting of massive quartzite.

The second type of topography is that presented by the hill range of metamorphic rocks running in an easterly and westerly direction just south of Kadwal. Here the hills rise suddenly from the Kadwal plain, towering up to the peak of hill "1400," which is the highest point of a rampart-like quartzite ridge running like a wall for several miles, and broken only at four points where

¹ *Trans. Min. Geol. Inst. Ind.*, Vol. XIII, pp. 73-127.

² *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XXXVII, pt. 2, pp. 281-2.

streams have cut gorges forming waterfalls and rapids. South of this there is an elevated plateau of very hilly country, built up of metamorphic rocks, descending more gently to the granite plain to the south.

The third type of topography is that of the Kadwal plain running north from the quartzite ridge above mentioned, as far as the State boundary. This area is marked by comparatively low hills of more or less uniform elevation with narrow valleys between. Some of the hills owe their preservation to quartz veins running through them; others are well rounded and in many cases are cultivated right over the top, in other cases they support scanty scrub jungle.

The south-western section of the area examined is drained by the Ani River and another unnamed tributary of the Orsang River, whilst the north-western and western sections are drained by the Sukhi River with an unnamed tributary flowing from the north-west out of Kadwal taluk. All these streams flow over wide sandy beds between low banks with occasional outcrops of rock breaking through the sand. They all cease to flow during the dry season but water is obtainable by sinking to no great depth in their sandy beds.

With the exception of scrub jungle on the hilly plateau south of Kadwal and on some of the hills north of that place there is no extensive forest growth in this area. The area between the Orsang and Sukhi rivers north of Jetpur is covered with a black cotton soil on which cotton is grown, but the remainder of the granite area has a light sandy soil which does not appear to be much cultivated. As already mentioned the soil in the phyllite area appears to be fertile, many of the hills there being cultivated right over their tops.

Geological Formations.

The geological formations of this area fall into two divisions, namely :—

- (1) quartzites, schists and phyllites,
- (2) granite or granitoid gneiss.

In addition there are certain intrusive dykes of younger age than the granite. The first of the above divisions constitutes the rocks known as the Champaner beds, of probable Dharwar age according to Fermor.

Granite or granitoid gneiss covers the whole area with the exception of the north-western corner and certain isolated patches of Granite or granitoid crystalline schist or gneiss, limestone and quartzite and a few intrusive dykes of trap. With only a minor exception to be described later the whole of the granite is remarkably constant in composition, the chief variation being in its texture.

In colour the granite is mainly greyish white owing to the feldspars being mostly white, which colour is toned to grey, by the abundant biotite present, when the rock is viewed in bulk. A finer grained variety—34/899—however, shows faintly pink owing to the colour of the feldspars. The exception to the normal type of granite is 34/993 which is a fine-grained granite in which the feldspars are pink and the resultant rock of a salmon-pink colour; microcline is absent. This specimen is from near Kasarmari, north of Chhota Udepur, and it is noticeable that the granite in this south-eastern corner is much pinker in colour and more gneissic in structure, than at Tejgad where it is massive and white in colour and has been quarried in places to provide stone for building the railway bridges.

Microscopically the granite varies from a greyish white to salmon pink colour and in texture from the finest microcrystalline up to a coarse granitic structure; in the latter type occur feldspars up to 24 mm. by 9 mm. and flakes of biotite up to 4 mm. across, as seen in specimen 34/895. In the coarse varieties the rock consists of clear quartz, feldspar and biotite in about equal proportions. The feldspars are faintly pink, appear quite fresh and unaltered and can be seen to be twinned by the naked eye. Muscovite is almost absent, so that the rock is a biotite granite.

Microscopically the rock is seen to be a normal granite in which quartz, feldspar and biotite predominate, with very subsidiary muscovite only in certain slides; traces of magnetite are observable in some cases. The feldspars are but little altered and consist mainly of microcline and albite.

It is the writer's opinion that this granite or granitoid gneiss is intrusive into the Champaner beds and therefore post-Dharwar in age. The evidence on this point is not conclusive but the following points lead to this supposition.

For the most part the granite is devoid of any gneissic structure but in certain cases the rock near the boundary is markedly gneissic

and the direction of the foliation is parallel to the strike of the metamorphics. This is particularly well seen south-south-west of Dhanpur and to a lesser extent north-west of Hatipagla, on the east side of the *nala* south-west of Ghonta, south-east of Kundal, north-north-east of Motipura and against the quartzite on the west side of the ridge south-east of Kasarmari. This points to the conclusion that this marginal foliation was induced during the process of intrusion.

The general strike of the metamorphics is north-west and south-east but on the margin of the granite masses the schists can be seen bending round just as would be expected if the granite had forced its way up into them. Thus north-west and north of Raipur "Raypur" the metamorphics are seen to swing from N.W.-S.E. to N.E.-S.W., to E.-W. and again N.W.-S.E. round the granite boss of hill "1478."

The northern half of the Kadwal plain has innumerable quartz veins intruded into the phyllites and these are probably connected with the granite intrusion. Pegmatites are also found in certain places, intruded into the crystalline schists and, though it was not found possible to trace any of these into the granite, there is little doubt in the writer's mind that they are in fact connected with the last stages of the granitic intrusion. These pegmatites appear to be of no great size and are not of economic importance. They are found near the quartzite inlier west of Sihod. The metamorphics near Raipur are intruded by quartz veins carrying black tourmaline: the biotite gneiss of hill "1235" is traversed by pegmatites as are also the schists north of Kundal. Hill "849" is intruded by pegmatites which are also seen in the *nala* south-east of Kundal. The biotite gneiss of hill "952" and the inlier at Bijol are both intruded with pegmatite veins.

A glance at the map will show that the granite area is dotted with inliers or perhaps xenoliths of quartzite, schists, and limestones of the Champaner beds, these inliers or xenoliths being roof pendants of the original rocks into which the granite was intruded. That there are no traces of marginal metamorphism is not surprising, since the metamorphism of the Champaners was probably so complete as to be little affected by the subsequent granite intrusion. There are varying degrees of metamorphism in these beds but these variations appear to be due to greater compression and folding in certain areas rather than to the intrusion. Metamorphism has

been most complete near the Raipur granite boss where there are only crystalline schists with occurrences of quartz-epidote and quartz-epidote-garnet rock, whereas the phyllites round the granite boss of hill "1252" show little or no change from normal.

The most striking feature of the Champaner beds is unquestionably the quartzite forming ridge "1400" south of Kadwal. This

The Champaners. quartzite is of varying thickness rising to 30-40 feet; there is another thinner bed a short distance to the north. The quartzite of hill "1400" dies out on the east at a point south of Vishengarh where it presents to view a mass of rock like the end of a ruined wall, rising sheer for some distance above the surrounding rocks and in marked contrast to the rounded contour of the granite hill "1478." From this point the quartzite runs south-west for a mile-and-a-half and then turns west-north-west for a mile; north-north-east of Kevra the bed makes a double right-angle bend and continues along its original direction but displaced to the north. At the point where this double bend occurs the quartzite has evidently been weakened by the flexion, and streams draining Kevra have broken through to the north-east forming a gorge through the quartzite. Plate 1, figure 1 shows a half end view of the quartzite on the western side of this gorge, taken from the north.

The quartzite is then continuous to the valley south-east of Khandi, in which the main workings of the Pani manganese mine are situated; it is seen projecting into the east side of the valley but is here much thinner than in the gorge to the east. Here the quartzite loses its prominence and ceases to form the spine of the ridge, but there are indications that it continues across the valley and, after crossing the valley of the stream flowing from Itvada, appears to die out to the west. In Plate 1, figure 2, taken from the north-west, the quartzite is plainly seen entering the east side of the valley and there are indications of it on the knoll in the centre.

The ridge to the west still has quartzite bands, not of the same thickness, forming the spine, but these appear to be disconnected. It is possible that the beds were originally continuous. The valley south of Khandi was evidently the scene of considerable folding in a vertical plane, which has bent the manganese reef into the form of a much flattened S, whereby the general direction has been maintained but the western arm displaced to the south. The forces

which would bend the more or less flexible beds containing the reef, in this way, would be liable to fracture and crush the more brittle quartzite bed, this fractured portion being then more readily denuded away. This bending of the manganese reef is clearly shown by the line of opencast workings seen in Plate 1, figure 2.

These quartzite bands have all been tilted into an almost vertical position indicating considerable orogenic disturbance; at the eastern end of the Pani workings it was seen that the manganese reef had been thrown into a number of sharp overfolds which, while preserving a general high angle of dip, repeat the bed by the folding of a single original bed. This is indicated in Plate 2, figure 1, which shows a cross section of the reef repeated by overfolding.

The neighbourhood of the quartzite, particularly to the south, is the scene of the highest degree of metamorphism yet seen in the Champaner beds; it is only equalled by the area of considerable disturbance round Kundal and hill "849."

Immediately south of the quartzite is a thin bed of conglomerate the presence of which is indicated in a few places only and then mainly in the form of debris, the occurrence of the bed *in situ* being masked by debris from the quartzite spine. In the gorge south of Sarsuva on the western boundary of the State the conglomerate is seen as a narrow band *in situ* against the southern side of the quartzite band. Microscopically the specimen (34/928) resembles an autoclastic quartz conglomerate mainly consisting of fine material but containing one quartz pebble two inches long by an inch wide. Microscopically it is seen to consist of rounded and angular fragments of quartz in a finer mosaic of quartz with a little mica tending to wrap round the quartz grains; the writer thinks that it is a true conglomerate. In the gorge south of Undhanja a very quartzose rock, resembling a metamorphosed conglomerate, was observed containing nodules of quartzite; no other occurrence at that time was observed. Again to the north-east of Kevra the conglomerate was seen almost *in situ* on the south side of the quartzite ridge. North-west of Raipur the bed could not be seen *in situ* but considerable debris is scattered on the slopes of which 34/978 is a piece; this has all the appearance of a true conglomerate.

In the gorge south of Sarsuva at the line of the southern band of quartzite, the stream-bed consists of a calcareous conglomerate evidently of recent origin. The writer thinks that this must be the

petrified waterfall described by E. J. Beer¹ at Poili, though this name cannot be located. The stream seems to have scoured out a deep pot-hole between the two quartzite bands occurring here and, when the limit of its excavating power was reached, the pebbles brought down were deposited in the cauldron and cemented in with calcareous matter derived from beds above. Finally the northern quartzite bed collapsed and was washed away, leaving a more or less cylindrical plug of calcareous conglomerate, the site of the present fall. This is doubtless being gradually undermined and broken off but a plug some 150 to 180 feet across and not less than 50 feet thick remains. The bed of the stream is also lined with similar material for some distance above the fall. The bed of the stream flowing past Bhabar is similarly covered for some distance with calcareous conglomerate, but there is here no fall.

South of the quartzite phyllite occurs, whilst further south this gives place to a calc-granulite forming a belt running eastwards and traced as far as the stream flowing to Bhabar, where, however, it has decreased very considerably in thickness. This is a dark grey rock in some bands of which occurs a mineral in very fine fans of radiating needles which glisten slightly and are evidently harder than the main mass of the rock as they tend to stand out on weathering (34/931); other bands have the same mineral occurring in haphazard needles (34/932). Microscopically the rock is seen to be made up of granular calcite with a colourless amphibole (tremolite). To the south this rock gives place to a pinkish friable limestone (34/934), also containing traces of tremolite and some quartz.

In the low ground here there is phyllite whilst the ridge near the boundary is made up of a gneiss (34/935) consisting mainly of clear bluish quartz in rounded grains in a groundmass of quartz, muscovite and biotite with a certain amount of tourmaline. One of the quartz grains has three idiomorphic crystals of tourmaline developed in it. On the south side the rock becomes much finer textured and of a reddish tinge, but retains the same constitution.

All these beds have an approximately east and west strike and dip at a very high angle, being in fact practically vertical. About a mile eastwards a similar sequence is observed. Starting from the

¹ *Trans. Min. Geol. Inst. Ind.*, Vol. XIII, p. 107, 1919.

quartzite of the ridge and proceeding south, there is first phyllite and then an area of mixed quartzites and limestones. Some of the former are hæmatite quartzite (34/940) whilst the latter contain green fibrous actinolite (34/949); one outcrop consists entirely of radiating fans of green actinolite, weathering brown, the calcareous matter having been apparently all weathered out. This gives place to white crystalline limestone with bands containing fibrous white tremolite in radiating fans (34/942). There are also bands of the grey calc-granulite. Just across the stream the phyllite is seen and extends to the top of the ridge where there is a belt of quartzite with the gneiss previously observed. In the stream-bed to the east is a waterfall produced by the belt of quartzite crossing the stream; much of this is a hæmatite quartzite (34/943) some 30-40 feet in width striking east and west and practically vertical. Below this is the phyllite which, near the junction of the streams in the valley below, gives place to the calc-granulite; here, however, it is quite a thin band.

The villages of Jhari, Kalikui and Bhabar, in the south-western corner of the Kadwal plain, all lie on a belt of very similar calc-granulite in which, however, there is a greater proportion of silica at the expense of the calcite and the amphibole is replaced by chlorite. This belt can be traced to the State boundary near Sarsuva and thins out in the stream-bed south of Khandi. It appears in the field as jagged outcrops of almost coal-black rock in which numerous veins of white quartz form a striking contrast. To the north the actual boundary of this bed with the phyllite is masked by alluvium, whilst to the south the rock passes by transition through a quartz-biotite-schist containing calcite, to the mica-schists and phyllite of the hill range.

This completes the description of the hill range to the south of Kadwal. The plain, from the foot of the range northwards for some two miles, is built up of phyllites or clay-slates of a greenish colour and rather soft. This area is much covered with alluvium and the rocks give rise to no striking topographical features. The streams run in comparatively deep courses cut through the mantle of alluvium into the soft phyllites.

The northern portion of the Kadwal plain right up to the State boundary presents, however, a different aspect. Here the surface consists of small hog-backed hills of no great elevation and of more or less uniform height, the majority of which owe their existence

to a spine consisting of quartz veins or thin beds of quartzite, the remainder of the hill being the normal phyllite.

The strike in this area is between W.N.W.-E.S.E., and E.-W. with the exception of the eastern side where the strike of the phyllites can be plainly seen curving round the granite mass of hills "1462," "1252" and "1386." The dip is always at a very high angles, sometimes one way and sometimes the other. Whilst engaged on this work the writer took this dip and strike as being that of the original bedding and it was only in the course of the last day's work that slight evidence was found tending to upset this idea.

Whilst travelling down the valley between Amadara Nana and Amadara Mota it was observed that the expanse of rock from the Kadwal hills to the State boundary may, possibly, be not a simple sequence of clay slates and quartzites but a repetition of the rocks by overfolding, with the same general dip, though with minor variations, but always a very high angle. Furthermore, north-west of Jogpura there is a speckled quartzite (34/913) which is repeated at an interval of about half-a-mile to the north. On the last day in this area a small exposure of rock was found just where the stream crosses the State boundary north-west of Khand, in which bands of varying colour were observed in the slates, making a distinct angle with the cleavage. These bands are due to the greater development of biotite in the darker bands due to difference of composition in the original rock; hence these bands mark the original bedding. Additional evidence on this point is necessary but the writer is inclined to the theory that this area is covered by rocks which have been thrown into very sharp folds or even overfolded, and that these tectonic movements have induced a cleavage in the rocks at an angle to the direction of pressure. Hence this cleavage is, for the most part, parallel to the original strike and dip where the beds have been tilted at high angles but at the anticlines and synclines the cleavage makes a variable angle with the original bedding and it is this that was observed near Khand.

Prior to leaving Chhota Udepur City the writer was informed that galena occurred in the Kadwal *taluk* and on arrival an effort was made to locate the mineral. The occurrence was finally located on a small hill about one mile north-west of Jogpura. As is so often the case this hill has a spine consisting

of a vein of quartz and in the soil round this the galena is found in loose lumps much of which consists of cerussite. In the short time available a certain amount of surface scratching was done but the mineral was not located *in situ* (see page 354).

The mixed phyllites and schists of the Champaner series continue in an east-south-easterly direction where hill "849" and the country surrounding it consists of the more highly metamorphosed rocks of the series, namely mica schists with numerous quartzite bands and at least one belt of calc-gneiss. Hill "952" to the south consists of biotite-gneiss similar to that observed all round the granite boundary from north-west of Raipur, round hill "1478."

In the village of Chetapur Chaena there are two thin bands of white limestone in the prevailing phyllites and here a black earthy material was found which proved to be wad (see page 354).

The granite appears to cut off entirely the metamorphic rocks, but there are two points where this is doubtful. The first is in the stream running north-east to Dungarbhint. About one mile east of Kundal the granite was observed both north and south of the stream but in the valley no rock exposures were found; pending examination further east of this point the boundary here must be left in some doubt. The other doubtful point is the Sukhi River valley south-east of hill "952," which is again alluvium-covered. Granite is seen in the villages of Dungarvant and Kirkavada and again in the fork of the river and the hill north-west of Sagdhara but not between. To the south-east, however, hill "1102" is composed of granite but hill "1235" is biotite-gneiss, with granite to the north of it again. It seems, therefore, a reasonable supposition that the biotite-gneiss stretches across from hill "952" to hill "1235," this being the direction of strike, and it is accordingly so marked on the map, but the possibility must not be overlooked that the granite actually comes up between and is masked, in which case hill "1235" would be an outlier of Champaners.

With the exception of numerous other small outliers of schist, quartzite and limestone, the rest of the area examined consists of granite, which has already been described.

There is a long narrow outcrop of limestone running roughly east and west lying just south of hill "1122" to the north-east of Malu. At the western end this is of a green colour, weathering almost white inside, though nearly black on the outside (34/988). Microscopically the rock is seen to consist of granular calcite with

serpentine, which latter by alteration is becoming opalised; it is evidently this opalisation which results in the white colour of the weathered rock.

Limestone also occurs just west of the village of Malu and a white crystalline limestone or marble is found on the road from Tejgad to Chhota Udepur at the village of Dhandora. Outliers of biotite gneiss occur at Bijol and Chilarwat and indicate a general continuation of the belt forming hills "952" and "1235" to the north-west. There are also numerous roof pendants of quartzite similar to those seen at the western end of the area examined.

The youngest rock formation of the district consists of small dolerite dykes which have been intruded through the granite. Five of

these have been observed, the largest being
Intrusive dykes. about half-a-mile north of Gelwat and traceable for half-a-mile, making a gradual curve from a northerly to a north-easterly direction. The dyke is of no great thickness, though wider than any of the others.

Similar dyke-material may be seen penetrating the granite just against the south side of the road bridge west of Gelwat. (It should be noted that the present alignment of the road from Chhota Udepur to Dhandora lies somewhat north of the line marked on the map.). Here the trap is seen penetrating the granite on which the bridge is founded, as a dyke 35 feet wide with a second 20-foot dyke to the south and 45 feet of granite between them, with trap overlying it. The whole is overlain by alluvium which comes down on the south side masking the trap which may or may not be wider than the 20 feet observed. The whole mass here is very rotten and weathered but the occurrence can be clearly seen and this is the only instance of anything in the nature of a lateral flow of the trap which was observed. North of the bridge there is another small dyke penetrating the granite. The third occurrence is just north-west of Kasarmari where the line of a thin trap dyke, running approximately N. N. E.—S. S. W. is marked by surface boulders. This can only be traced for quite a short distance each way. The fourth occurrence is a small dyke running almost due east and west in the stream-course just south of Khajuria. The fifth and last occurrence was observed just south of the defile between hill "922," south-east of Malu, and the hills running south-east. This is quite a narrow dyke which is shown mainly by rounded boulders on the surface. The dyke runs due

east and west and was traced for about half-a-mile. At only two points was anything in the nature of a section observed, where two small streams had cut slightly into the trap and the adjacent granite. Actual contact specimens were obtained here (34/984, 34/985, 34/986, and 34/987) and these show that the dolerite has been intruded into a somewhat crushed granite, with the production of a hybrid rock. Fine needles of felspar have been developed in the granite, occurring as radiating fringes round the original felspar crystals and with the same optical orientation (see Plate 3, figs. 1 and 2).

Economic Geology.

Manganese is easily the most important mineral of economic value occurring in the area under examination. As already mentioned the manganese reef occurs on the north

Manganese.
side of the hill range south of Kadwal, lying quite close to the quartzite spine of ridge "1,400". Just prior to the European war of 1914-18 the property was worked by a German firm and after the outbreak of hostilities it passed under the control of the Shivrajpur Syndicate, managed by Messrs. Killick, Nixon & Co. of Bombay, who took over the property on the understanding that no concession to work any minerals should be granted within a radius of six miles from Pani.

Up to the present the entire work has been done by opencast with the result that a great gash has been cut along the hillside, as may be seen in Plate 1, figure 2, and most of the evidence as to the original formation has been destroyed. The workings, however, clearly show the acute fold by which the reef has been turned back on itself for some 300 to 400 feet and then back again parallel to the original direction but displaced to the south. Evidence of the original width is lacking but the width now varies from a few feet up to forty feet, the reef being almost vertical with perhaps a slight tendency towards a dip to the north. The ore appears to be the result of the replacement, more or less complete, of quartzite by oxides of manganese. Sporadic occurrences of very high grade pyrolusite are found from time to time, yielding ore containing as much as 95 per cent. of pyrolusite and more (M. 781).

In addition to the main fold about the centre of the workings mention has been made of minor folding at what was the extreme eastern end of the workings at the time of examination. Some

distance west of this point, what appeared to have been a trial pit had been sunk and then cut open from the front, and in this the folding could also be seen. Here the reef consists of clayey wad-like material mixed with quartzite in all stages of conversion into manganese ore and having a four-inch selvage of unaltered, reddish-brown quartzite on each side. Some of this quartzite shows dendritic markings (34/953). On the outer side the reef rests against phyllite, and the apex of a fold is just seen with its upper limb running across the back of the pit. There is a white clayey rock between, which is a decomposed phyllite (34/952). This rock also overlies the top arm of the fold with another section of the reef crossing the pit just under the surface debris. The top limb is just visible in Plate 2, figure 2, with the intervening phyllite below and the centre limb of the reef with its quartzite selvage clearly seen in the centre of the photograph and the fold and lower limb of the reef on the right. The photograph had to be taken at an awkward angle and under bad lighting conditions but with the aid of the sketch, Plate 3, figure 3, it becomes fairly clear.

Comparatively little work was being done at this eastern end, the chief effort being confined to the section on the main fold and the westward extension just started and seen on the extreme right of Plate 1, figure 2. The reef has in places been worked out to a depth of from 40 to 50 feet and the floor has thus been brought down to plain level and even a little below so that drainage ceases to be natural. Furthermore, trouble is now likely to be experienced from the weight on the back wall due to the ridge behind. This wall is much higher than the front owing to the steep slope of the ridge, as can be seen in Plate 1, figure 2, and it is cut on the dip, which is very steep or practically vertical. To reduce the weight on this back wall would involve the removal of an impossible amount of waste, and opencast working has in many places reached its limit.

There is evidence, in the shape of old workings, showing that the reef extends westwards to beyond the stream south-west of Khandi and the writer was informed that it had been found more or less continuous right along to Shivrajpur. On the eastern side there is a knoll at the end of ridge "1,400" south of Vishengarh, consisting of quartz-tourmaline rock in which there are signs of old pits and trenches which were said to have been dug for manganese, without success.

As already mentioned manganese was found to occur at the village of Chetapur Chaena some six miles east-south-east of the Pani workings. It seems quite possible that this is an easterly extension of the same reef, or perhaps an easterly detached occurrence on the same strike, if the deposits here prove to be in the form of detached lenticles. No evidence of manganese was found between these points or further eastwards.

A monorail was originally built from Champaner Road, on the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway main line, to Shivrajpur, to take out the manganese ore from that place. This line was subsequently replaced by a metre-gauge line which was later extended to Pani to tap the manganese deposit in that area. Hence the railway development of this part of the State is due to the occurrence of payable manganese.

Another metallic mineral found to occur in the area examined is the galena previously mentioned, located on a hill north-west of

Jogpura This was the only occurrence actually seen, but as galena is generally reported

from Borkunda it seems quite possible that a detailed search might reveal other deposits, though several other reputed occurrences were sought without success. The galena appears to be associated with the quartz vein, though this was not actually proved, and the whole of the northern part of the Kundal plain is riddled with such veins. A sample of the material collected was assayed for silver; the results showed 76 per cent. Pb, which would of course be low, being a pot assay result, and silver in the proportion of 24 oz. 4 cwt. 3 grs. per long ton, which may be taken as correct.

Iron in the form of hæmatitic quartzite occurs in the hill range south of Kadwal, on both sides of the central valley. A quartz vein crossing the stream flowing out from

Iron.

Itvada also carries specular iron ore. None of these occurrences are of economic value owing to the difficult country in which they occur, the smallness of the deposit and its distance from any smelting area.

Turning now to the non-metallic minerals of economic importance, the crystalline limestones occurring as outliers in the granite are worthy of attention. The outlier near hill

Limestone.

"1122," north-east of Malu, consists of a serpentine marble of an oily leek-green colour; it is of a compara-

tively fine texture, will take a good polish and should make a very handsome ornamental stone for interior decoration.

White marble has been used in the construction of the new palace in Chhota Udepur. This was brought from a point near Jamla, north-north-east of the city, but the locality has not yet been examined. Similar material occurs just across the Orsang River south of the city, where it is used for lime burning. This also is outside the examined area but the limestone found at Dandora is the same.

The calc-granulite from the central valley of the Kadwal hill range is very fine textured and the radiating fans and needles of amphibole lend a sort of pattern to the stone. The stone is dark grey in colour. It should make a useful building stone for certain purposes but would probably prove to be less easy to cut, dress and polish than ordinary marble owing to the amphibole in it; it also occurs in rather inaccessible country.

The calc-granulite occurring north of the hill range has been used in the past for lime-burning; it would probably make an indifferent lime owing to the admixture of chlorite and quartz which freely occur. The quartz in the stone would also make it a hard rock to cut and dress for building purposes.

Lime-burning is carried out at Khandi, near Pani Railway Station, the raw material being *kankar* carted from Borkunda.

Kankar. This *kankar* has evidently resulted from the decomposition of the metamorphic rocks and has been concentrated in patches and pockets along the stream-course in Borkunda, whence it is being dug out and carted to Khandi. The presence of these lime kilns located almost on the calc-granulite and yet using *kankar* from five or six miles away indicates that the material got by burning the calc-granulite was at any rate not good enough for sale in the open market.

In the stream-bed south of Kundal a series of calcareous rocks is exposed, one of which is a calcareous graphitic schist crossing the stream-bed as a black band. The band is quite thin and the schist is not sufficiently rich in graphite to be of any economic value, as far as the exposure examined is concerned.

Graphitic.

The pegmatites of hill "952" were reported as yielding mica up to four inches square but though some of them looked somewhat promising nothing approaching this size was found.

Mica.

Much of the granite in the area examined would make very excellent building stone, particularly certain of the medium and finer textured varieties. Some of this granite has in fact been quarried from near hill "1325" at Tejgad and certain other places and used in the construction of bridges on the railway line to Chhota Udepur. Beyond this there appears to be but little local demand for the stone and for export purposes transport charges would probably be prohibitive.

Granite.

The favourite material for road-metal in the area appears to be the quartzite from the various inliers. The stone is hard and might for this reason be thought good for road-metal, but although hard, it is brittle and under load and impact it breaks up readily and is ground to a fine white dust; it is in fact poor material for roads.

Road-metal.

The granite of the area would make a fairly satisfactory road-metal if care were taken to employ only the finest textured material. Even this would not make a really first-class road-metal. Unquestionably the best material available is the dolerite of the dykes already mentioned. This is a very fine-textured rock, and is extremely tough and resistant to wear. In using this rock, however, weathered-out boulders should be rejected as such material is always to some extent superficially rotten. Freshly quarried stone broken into angular fragments will make the best metal both for binding in the road and for wear.

All the water-courses in the area examined were already dry when the district was reached early in February and the only surface supply of water observed was a large tank on the river bank at Jetpur.

Water.

The soil is for the most part readily porous to surface water, which finds its way down to but a little depth. Thus comparatively shallow seepage wells are found to yield quite good supplies of water and even as late as May, after an exceptionally hot and dry season, shallow holes in stream-beds were still yielding water supplies for whole villages.

In the area examined the only important site with regard to water questions, is the elevated plateau south of Kundal. Here there occur three small catchment areas drained by the streams flowing out through narrow gorges south of Bhabar, south-west of Khandi and south of Undhania. Owing to the narrowness of the gorges the areas could be impounded by the building of quite small dams and the rock foundations would be suitable in every way.

EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

PLATE 21, FIG. 1.—Western end of Quartzite Ridge in the gorge south of Undhania.

„ FIG. 2.—General view of the Pani Mine from the north-west.

PLATE 22, FIG. 1.—Folding of Manganese Reef at the eastern end of the Pani Mine.

„ FIG. 2.—Folding of Manganese Reef near the eastern end of the Pani Mine.

PLATE 23, FIG. 1.—Photomicrograph of granite-dolerite hybrid rock showing aggregates of secondary felspar needles in the S. W. quadrant and secondary felspar fringes round original crystals in the centre and N. E. quadrant.

„ FIG. 2.—Same as Figure 1, but with nicols crossed showing secondary felspar fringes in optical continuity with original felspar.

„ FIG. 3.—Sketch section of the manganese reef at the eastern end of the Pani Mine.

PLATE 24.—Geological Map of Chhota Udepur State ; scale 1 inch=1 mile.

APPENDIX

Place.	Latitude..		Longitude. ¹	
Bhabar	22	28 40	73	49 00
Bijol	22	22 50	74	1 00
Borkunda	22	32 40	73	49 30
Chetapur Chaena	22	27 00	73	55 50
Chilarwat	22	21 40	74	2 20
Chhota Udepur	22	18 00	74	4 20
Dhandora	22	19 10	74	1 10
Dhanpur	22	27 40	73	54 50
Dungarvant	22	25 40	73	55 40
Gelwat	22	18 20	74	2 30
Ghonta	22	29 30	73	56 40
Hatipaglia	22	25 40	73	52 20
Itvada	22	27 30	73	49 50
Jamla	22	21 00	74	5 40
Jetpur	22	20 30	73	54 10
Jhari	22	28 30	73	47 50
Jogpura	22	31 50	73	51 30
Kadwal	22	29 40	73	49 20
Kand	22	32 10	73	49 00
Kasarmari	22	21 40	73	4 00
Kavra	22	26 50	73	52 00
Khajuria	22	20 30	74	0 50
Khandi	22	28 40	73	50 20
Kakavada	22	25 10	73	56 10
Kundal	22	27 50	73	57 20
Malu	22	24 20	73	58 30
Pani	22	28 40	73	51 20
Raipur	22	25 50	73	53 30
Sagdhara	22	25 50	73	56 30
Sarsuva	22	28 30	73	47 10
Sihod	22	19 20	73	52 10
Tejgad	22	20 40	73	58 00
Undhania	22	28 40	73	51 00
Vishengarh	22	28 10	73	54 10

¹These longitude readings are those of the old map and require correcting by the addition of 2° 27'.

REMARKS ON THE KNOWN INDIAN SPECIES OF CONOCLYPEUS, WITH DESCRIPTIONS OF TWO NEW SPECIES FROM THE EOCENE OF NORTH-WEST INDIA. BY MAJOR L. M. DAVIES, R. A. (With Plates 25 to 26.)

It does not seem that any Indian species of *Conoclypeus* has ever yet been identified with an European one. In 1889-94 Cotteau recognised three French species and eighteen foreign to France¹; among the latter he admitted, as distinct from each other and from the rest of the then known types, the six Indian species described by Duncan and Sladen.² It is worth remarking that Cotteau rejected the earlier described *C. flemingi* of d'Archiac, owing to the indeterminate character of the specimen upon which the species was founded, of which the genus itself is uncertain³. It appears, from the figure given in d'Archiac and Haime's own work,⁴ that this caution is well justified.

Since Cotteau wrote his comments, a number of new species of *Conoclypeus* have been described in other countries (though no more in India), and we have probably now to recognise about 40 species instead of the 21 of Cotteau. It does not seem, however, that any European or other western specimen has yet been found which exactly corresponds to an Indian one.⁵ On the other hand, the Indian specimens seem to form a fairly closely related group among themselves, to which the two new species now about to be described also appear to belong, without being actually identifiable with any of the forms already known. As I have recently been given, through the courtesy of the Director of the Geological Survey of India, the fullest opportunity of examining the original specimens

¹ "Echinides Eocènes" by G. Cotteau, *Palæontologie Française*, 1-re Serie, Vol. II, p. 196, ff.

² *Pal. Ind.*, Ser. XIV, Vol. I, Memoir 3, Faa. II and III.

³ *Op. cit.*, pp. 214-215.

⁴ *Ann. Foss. du Groupe Numm. de l'Inde*, 1853, p. 215 and Pl. XV, fig. 1.

⁵ The western forms which approach the Indian types most closely seem to be *C. delanouei* P. de Loriol, 1890, from the Eocene of Egypt, *C. vilanova* Cotteau, 1890, from the Middle Eocene of Spain, and *C. pyrenaicus* Cotteau, 1856, from the Middle Eocene of France and Spain.

from which Messrs. Duncan and Sladen described their species, I am in a position to describe the new types with some confidence in regard, at least, to their differences from those which approach them most closely.

CONOCLYPEUS PILGRIMI, sp. nov.

Plate 25, figs. 1—6, Plate 26, figs. 1 and 2.

This form appears in considerable numbers in a particular limited zone of the Eocene rocks of Kohat ($33^{\circ} 35' 30''$; $71^{\circ} 30'$ to $71^{\circ} 33'$), and its chief interest lies in

General remarks.

the fact that it is the first Indian type of its genus to be described from a large number of fairly well preserved specimens, collected within a small area, at an exactly definable stratigraphic horizon. Not only, therefore, can all its main characters be ascertained with certainty, but the general constancy to type of the specimens, together with the impossibility of separating them into more than one species, allows one both to judge of the characters which seem to be variable, and also to refer with some confidence even to comparatively minor details of form, where these seem to belong to the type rather than to the individual. The new type thus markedly differs from those Indian species (i.e., *sindensis*, *declivis*, *galerus*¹ and *rostratus*) in which one or more features—apical system, periproct or peristome—are totally unknown, and which have sometimes also been obviously distorted in shape by rock pressure. Even the holotypes of *pinguis* and *alveolatus*, which are really beautiful and almost perfect specimens, seem to stand alone as representatives of their species; so it is not certain to what degree their minor characters are specific rather than individual. In other words, *C. pinguis* and *C. alveolatus* are at present the only two really well defined Indian species of this genus; the new species makes a third, with the added advantages of being represented by a fairly large number of specimens and coming from an exactly definable stratigraphic zone.

¹ Cotteau renamed this species *C. duncani*, to avoid confusion with *C. galerus* Schafhautil, 1863. Presumably *duncani* is therefore its correct name. As I am referring only to Indian species in the body of this paper, however, I am retaining the more familiar Indian name for the type. My references therefore are to *C. galerus* D. & S., 1884, non Schafhautil, 1863.

The test is large, about 130 mm. long, and subconical, its height being about 54 per cent. of its length.¹ Its apex is slightly (or about 4 per cent. of its length) excentric to the front, and the dorsal outlines descend from apex to ambitus in regular curves, the anterior curve being more convex than the posterior, but less so than those to the sides. The ambital margin is somewhat tumid in front, less so at the sides, and comparatively sharp in the rear.

The actinal surface is concave, and sub-oval in shape. Its greatest width is opposite the extremities of the anterior lateral petals, or about 15 per cent. excentric to the front, and equals about 80 per cent. of its length. The average concavity of the base, as measured in twelve specimens, equals 10 per cent. of the height of the test. This concavity, however, though always present, is apt to vary. Most specimens show a concavity of from 8 to 12 per cent. of their height, but in one it is only 2 per cent., and in another as much as 17 per cent.

The apical plate is pentagonal in shape, with four large genital pores at the four anterior angles, and a somewhat pronounced tongue at the imperforate and posterior fifth. The whole plate is punctured with madreporite pores, with the exception of a narrow imperforate rim (not always distinguishable) round each genital pore. The ocular pores are small, and the ocular plates impinge slightly upon the sides of the apical plate.

The ambulacral petals² are wide, and slightly and evenly sunken through the greater part of their length. The anterior petal is straight; the anterior laterals curve slightly forwards; the posterior laterals are slightly and gracefully sinuous, curving outwards somewhat sharply for the first third of their course, rather less sharply through the middle third, and again inclining more outwardly for the last third. They terminate well above the ambitus (about 1½ cm. above it in the adult).

The poriferous zones are broad; their breadth increases somewhat rapidly for a short distance from the oculars, then more gra-

¹ This represents the average height of 12 specimens. Height seems to vary considerably in this species, being as little as 50 per cent. in some and as much as 58 per cent. in others, with every gradation in between. The figured specimen is higher than the average.

² I use the term "petal", for convenience, to denote the portion of the ambulacrum supplied with conjugate double pores, whether the end of the same is constricted or not.

dually for the rest of the first third of the length of the petal, after which it remains constant through the middle third, and decreases again gradually through the lower third. The petal is finally terminated in somewhat abrupt fashion, the outer pores in the last 3 or 4 pairs separating from each other and approaching their respective inner pores, so that the groove joining the last pair is only about $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ as long as the grooves in the middle of the petal, and is inclined at about 30° to 60° to the ambitus. A single row of pores continues from the end of the petal to the peristome, at each margin of the amb. As the latter nears the peristome, a narrow but widening and deepening granular border appears at each of its margins. Within this border the pores become first crowded and irregular, and finally appear to be regularly doubled, the outer ones being slightly larger than the inner.

The pairs of pores in the ambulacral petals are numerous, the outer pores being longer than the inner. The grooves joining them are deep, and all but the last few are straight and lie parallel to the ambitus. The costae between the grooves are ornamented with closely packed granules, not disposed in even rows as with some other species.

The interporiferous zones are about four-fifths of the width of the poriferous areas in the middle third of the petal, and widen by about another fifth towards the end of the petal, as the poriferous areas contract. Their ornamentation is crowded, uniform with that of the inter-radial areas, and consists of the usual small, equal, perforate and crenulate tubercles, sunken in aureoles.

On the actinal surface the anterior amb is seen to be straight, while the anterior laterals are slightly convex, and the posterior laterals markedly concave, to the front. On approaching the peristome the whole ambulacrum sinks, troughwise, between the adjacent inter-radial areas, and assumes a convex surface owing to the deepening and widening of the granular borders mentioned above.

The inter-radial areas of the abactinal surface are slightly tumid at their junctions with the amb's, but smooth and somewhat flat between, with an inclination to slight depression at the median line¹.

¹ In these respects *C. pilgrimi* differs from all the types figured by Duncan and Sladen, since the latter either have more rounded inter-radial areas (*sindensis*, *declivis* sp., *galerus*, *rostratus* and *alveolatus*), less tumid margins (*pinguis* and *galerus*), or posterior ridge (*sindensis*, *galerus*, *rostratus*, *pinguis* and *alveolatus*).

The peristome is central or sub-central, pentagonal, transversely broad.

The periproct is ovate, elongate longitudinally, with the smaller end towards the peristome. In the largest specimens its elongation is very marked, and its position is close to the ambital area, which it touches but does not transgress. In the smallest and presumably least mature specimens, however, the periproct is markedly shorter and rounder, and partly situated on the ambitus, its plane being inclined to the actinal surface. Intermediate stages, in shape and position, are found in specimens of intermediate size.¹

The specimens were found in considerable numbers, about 4 to 6 miles east of Kohat, in beds composed of limestone bands with stiff yellow calcareous clay partings.

Taxial position of species. The position of these beds suggests their correlation with the mid-Laki "Alveolina Limestone" of Sind. Thus they are underlain by a considerable thickness of clay beds which appear to correspond to the Lower Laki "Meting Shales," since local traces of vegetable remains are found at that level, and they are overlain by some 600 feet of beds with a Laki fauna on top, which seem to correspond to the "Ghazij Shales" etc., of Upper Laki levels.²

The fauna of the limestones themselves also bears out their mid-Laki character. Thus they not only contain such typical Laki foraminifera as *Nummulites atacicus* and *Assilina granulosa*, besides many Laki molluscs, but they are crowded with *Alveolina oblonga* together with *Orbitolites complanatus*, a typical "Alveolina Limestone" combination as found in Sind³ and Southern Tibet.⁴ *Hemiaster apicalis* D. & S., said by Vredenburg to "characterise" the Alveolina Limestone of Sind,⁵ has also been found in these limestones.

¹ A similar movement of the periproct, away from the apex and towards the peristome, has been recorded and figured by A. Agassiz, when describing the development of *Brisopsis lyrifera* and *Echinarachnius parma* (see Plates XIX. f. 1, 4, and XII f. 1, 4, 9, etc., in his *Revision of the Echini*, Pt. IV, *Structure and Embryology of the Echini*, in *Memoirs of the Museum of Comparative Zoology*, Harvard, Vol. III, p. 744, etc.)

² Discussed in detail in my "Notes on the Geology of Kohat," published in Vol. XX, *Journ. As. Soc. Bengal*.

³ Thus Geological Survey of India specimens No. G. 280-115 and G. 280-77 (b), from the Alveolina Limestone of Sind, closely resemble specimens from this horizon at Kohat.

⁴ C. Pal Ind., New Ser., Vol. V, Mem. 3, pp. 42, ff., and Pl. XVI. In his notes for a Memoir on Indian Alveolines, which he was preparing at the time of his death, Mr. Vredenburg stated that these forms were collected from the Alveolina Limestone of Southern Tibet.

⁵ *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XXXIV, p. 193.

It seems therefore that this *Conoclypeus* belongs to the mid-Laki "Alveolina Limestone" zone. It is thus approximately associated with *C. alveolatus*, the only other member of the genus to have been reported as yet from the Laki; although the zonal placing of *alveolatus*, within the Laki, does not seem to be so exactly known.

I am taking the liberty of naming this species after Dr. Pilgrim, of the Geological Survey of India, who was the first to suggest my studying the geology of Kohat.

CONOCLYPEUS WARTHI, sp. nov.

Plate 26, figs. 3—6.

Only one specimen is known of this form. It was collected some years ago by Mr. H. Warth, late of the Geological Survey of India, from the vicinity of Jutana (32°

General remarks. $43\frac{1}{2}'$; 73° $9\frac{1}{2}'$). The stratigraphic horizon from which it came is not recorded. Although it stands alone, however, the specimen is so strongly marked in every way that it seems undoubtedly to constitute a perfectly distinct species, and the Director of the Geological Survey has kindly permitted me to describe it.

The test is large, bigger even than a full-grown *C. pilgrimi*. Its dimensions are: length, 144 mm.; breadth, 109 mm.; height 78 mm. The apex is 78 mm. from the posterior end of the test, or about 5 per cent. excentric to the front. The peristome, so far as one can judge from the converging ambis on the actinal surface, should be about 82 mm. from the posterior end of the test, thus being even more excentric forward than the apex, a singular feature for this genus.

The base of the test is semicircular in front of the peristome, and pointed behind, thus being more or less kite-shaped.

In side elevation the test is very tumid, and higher behind the apex than in front. The anterior profile runs almost directly forward from the apex, with a descent of only $\frac{1}{4}$ th of the height in $\frac{1}{2}$ ths of the distance from apex to anterior margin; after which the profile curves rapidly over and descends almost vertically for the next two quarters of the height, and then swings round in a semicircle, downwards and to the rear, for the last quarter. The anterior ambitus is thus very rounded and tumid, unlike any other Indian species. To rear of the apex, the profile rises slightly for $\frac{1}{3}$ rd of the

distance to the posterior margin, then swings round and downwards in a broad curve, and finishes with the last 4 cm. of the profile as a straight line descending at over 70° to the ambitus. Thus the rear portion of the ambitus is almost rectangular in profile, and in marked contrast to its very rounded shape in front.

The cross elevation of the test is also peculiar, as the lines of the profile go out horizontally from the apex for at least $\frac{1}{2}$ the distances to the sides, then swing round in bold convex curves and finally descend, for the lower half of the total height, in vertical or even recurved lines; so that the top of the shell appears to be quite flat, as seen from the rear (or front), and overhangs the ambitus on both sides.

Thus the appearance of the test as seen from beneath, from the side, or from either end, is most unusual, and quite unlike that of any other known Indian species of this genus.

The ambulacral petals terminate far (at least 2 cm.) above the ambitus, and the petal-ends are of the usual Indian type, though slightly more tapered and with the terminal conjugate grooves slightly more horizontal than in *C. pilgrimi*. The poriferous areas are very broad; for the first half of the petal length they are about twice as broad as the interporiferous areas. At the ends of the petals, however, the interporiferous areas become nearly as broad as the poriferous at their widest. The poriferous areas exhibit much the same general plan of increase and decrease in width as is found in *C. pilgrimi*, but the terminal portion is rather more tapered.

The interambulacra' areas are striking in appearance, representing a great exaggeration of tendencies only faintly indicated in *C. pilgrimi*. Thus the petals, as with that species, are sunk evenly between the interambulacra for at least three quarters of their length, but they are sunk far more deeply. The interambulacra are also far more tumid at their junctions with the ambas, and the tendency to central depression, noted in *pilgrimi*, is here so exaggerated that distinct median grooves appear, giving a singular appearance to the test.

There is also a similar, but much slighter, median depression in the interporiferous areas of the ambas.

The ornamentation of the test is of the usual pattern, but the test is too weathered for details to be seen, e.g., on the costæ between the conjugating grooves of pore-pairs. All one can say is that the

ornamentation, though close, is not quite so closely packed as in *C. pilgrimi*.

The details of the apical disc are unfortunately indistinguishable; the whole region of the peristome has been destroyed, so that no details can be recorded there.

The periproct is ovate, elongated longitudinally, with narrow end towards the peristome. It is situated close up to the ambitus. Its shape and position are thus much as in *C. pilgrimi*, but it is distinctly smaller (14 by 10 mm. instead of 18 by 11 mm.; even a *C. pilgrimi* only 115 mm. long has a periproct 15 by 10 mm. in size).

It is impossible to say exactly what the character of the actinal surface of this test may have been, as so much of its central portion has been destroyed. It was probably slightly concave.

The Indian species of *Conoclypeus*, including the two new ones here described, have a family resemblance in the uniformly excentric positions of their apical discs, in the great width (even exaggerated in *rostratus*) of the poriferous as compared with the interporiferous portions of their ambulacral areas, and in the nature of the conjugating grooves of their pore pairs, these being uniformly horizontal (i.e., parallel to the ambitus) instead of being curved as in the figures of so many western types. The petals also always end well above the margin, and except in *alveolatus*—abruptly; they are also invariably equal or sub-equal in each pair.

There is, however, an apparent tendency in these Indian types to modify certain details in successive zones¹ :—

(a) Thus, if we examine the proportion of petal width measured, for uniformity, in the middle of the petal—to total length of the test, we find it to be as follows :—

Ranikot.	Laki.	Khirthar.
10.4 per cent., <i>sindensis</i>	14.5 per cent., <i>alveolatus</i> .	16.5 per cent., <i>pinguis</i> .
9.9 per cent., sp. .	15.0 per cent., <i>pilgrimi</i> .	14.6 per cent., <i>rostratus</i> .
12.3 per cent., <i>declivis</i>	15.6 per cent., <i>galerus</i> .

¹ I follow the stratigraphic placing of Duncan and Sladen's species as given by Vredenburg, *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XXXIV, pp. 187, 188, 190 and 194.

(b) Measuring the lengths of anterior, and posterior lateral, petals, we find the latter to exceed by the following proportions :—

Ranikot.	Laki.	Khirthar.
17 per cent., <i>sindensis</i> . . .	16 per cent., <i>alveolatus</i> . .	11 per cent., <i>pinguis</i> .
	13 per cent., <i>pilgrimi</i> . .	5 per cent., <i>rostratus</i> .
		8 per cent., <i>galerus</i> .

(c) The relative heights of the tests, in ratio to their total lengths, are as follows :—

Ranikot.	Laki.	Khirthar.
44 per cent., <i>sindensis</i> . . .	61 per cent., <i>alveolatus</i> . .	58 per cent., <i>pinguis</i> .
47 per cent., <i>sp.</i> . . .	54 per cent., <i>pilgrimi</i> . .	50 per cent., <i>rostratus</i> .
44 per cent., <i>declivis</i>	57 per cent., <i>galerus</i> .

There is thus, together with the family resemblance between the Indian types, an apparent general tendency (a) to increase the proportion of petal width, (b) to level up the petal lengths, and (c) to increase the relative height of the shell.¹ It is true that these results are based on the examination of only a very limited number of species. It is also true that discrepancies exist; thus *rostratus* is backward in (a) and (c) but advanced even for its stage in (b), while *alveolatus* is very advanced in respect of (c), but the general tendency does seem to exist, nevertheless.

It is interesting, therefore, to note that the proportions of *warthi* are in these respects as follows :—(a) 13·5 per cent., (b) 15 per cent., (c) 54 per cent. Thus although the horizon from which it came is not recorded, the proportions of *warthi* seem to indicate, in all three respects, that it belongs to the Laki stage. This, too, is probably the case; for as *warthi* was found near Jutana, the likelihood is that it came from the Eocene rocks in that vicinity,

¹ It will be noticed that the tendency is, in each case, to de-specialise the type. This may possibly be analogous to the partial de-specialisation of other types—e.g. the uncoiling of Ammonites—prior to their extinction. It will be remembered that *Conoclypeus* does not seem to have survived the Eocene.

and these seem to be limited to the Nummulitic limestone of the Punjab Salt Range, which I believe to be of Laki age. Thus I agree with Mr. Pinfold in thinking that this limestone is of infra-Khirthar character,¹ since I have found it capped, on the flanks of the Nilawan Ravine, by fossiliferous outliers of Laki clays. Dr. Pascoe is apparently also of the same opinion, as he classes this limestone as "Lower Nummulitic" and "Hill Limestone," i.e., infra-Khirthar.² Throughout the Punjab Salt Range, too, including exposures at Jutana and in the Nilawan Ravine, this limestone seems to be underlain by gypseous beds with coaly layers, which seem to correspond to the "Meting Shales" (cf. *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XIV, pp. 105, 138, 142, 192, etc.). Besides this, the limestone itself is characterised by the locally abundant presence of "large" gastropods, bivalves and echinoderms, together with *Orbitolites* and *Alveolina* (*ibid.*, pp. 69, 106, etc.) All these are very definite indications that the Salt Range Nummulitic limestone corresponds to the mid-Laki "Alveolina Limestone." The great size of *warthi* also agrees well enough with its derivation from a horizon which has produced so many other large species, e.g., *C. pilgrimi*, *Cerithium giganteum*, *Lucina gigantea*, etc.

It seems, therefore, that *C. pilgrimi* certainly, and *C. warthi* almost certainly, must be regarded as characterising the Alveolina Limestone level of the Indian Laki series. There are thus now three known species of this genus attributable to each of the three great Indian Eocene stages.

¹ *Rep., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XLIX, p. 150.

² *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XL, Pt. 3, pp. 343-344.

EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

- PLATE 25, Fig. 1.—*Conoclypeus pilgrimi* (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3422). Longitudinal profile of the test, seen from the right. Half size.
- „ „ 2. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3421).—The same, seen from the left. Half size.
- „ „ 3. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3420).—The same, seen from the rear. Half size.
- „ „ 4. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3417).—Abactinal view of the same specimen. Half size.
- „ „ 5. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3419).—Actinal view of another specimen. Half size.

EXPLANATION OF PLATES,—*contd.*

- PLATE 25, Fig. 6. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 1252).—Actinal view of a young specimen. Half size.
- „ 26 „ 1. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3418).—Abactinal view of another specimen, to show shape of apical disc. Magnified $\frac{3}{4}$.
- „ „ 2. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 1253).—Abactinal view of another specimen, to show imperforate rims round genital pores. Nat. size.
- „ „ 3. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3425).—*Conoclypeus warthi*. Longitudinal profile of the test, seen from the right. Half size.
- „ „ 4. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3426).—The same, seen from the rear. Half size.
- „ „ 5. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3424).—Abactinal view of the same. Half size.
- „ „ 6. (G. S. I. Reg. No. 3423).—Actinal view of the same. Half size.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTE.

Ornament of heated Talc from Mohenjo Daro.

The specimen herein described was submitted for examination by the Archaeological Survey, who obtained it from the excavations at Mohenjo-Daro in the Indus Valley. It is a broken fragment of what was originally a hollow circle, of the nature of a bangle, with a comparatively small internal diameter, probably of about 7 to 8 cms., and a depth of about 4 cms. The fragment received was a segment about 5 cms. in length; the maximum thickness was about 1.5 cms., tapering to the top and bottom by curvature of the outer surface. The inner surface was smooth; the outer surface had on it a pattern in relief consisting of pairs of circles and trefoils. The fragment had fractured at points where small circular holes pierced it from the outside to the inside, the holes being directed towards the centre of the circle.

There was evidence that the pattern had been carved and not moulded, as there were signs of the cutting tool having slipped in a few places.

The material had an irregular fracture, a specific gravity of 2.75 and a hardness of about 6. Under the microscope a thin section proved to be semi-transparent with fairly high relief, while a few grains irregularly disposed showed high polarization colours. There appeared to be an ill-defined cleavage and the outward appearance somewhat resembled felspar; the cleavage, however, was not sufficiently distinct, and the specific gravity and the refractive index were too high.

As no decision could be arrived at by physical and optical tests, a small fragment was broken off in such a way as not to damage the carving, and was analysed with the following result:

SiO ₂	62.87 per cent.
Al ₂ O ₃ & Fe ₂ O ₃	3.13 per cent.
CaO	traces.
MgO	32.57 per cent.
		<hr/>
		98.57

There was not sufficient material to allow determination of the moisture; some is present but the amount lies well within the 1.43 per cent. available in the above analysis.

The analysis corresponds very closely with the composition of talc, the only factor against it being the hardness. A piece of ordinary Indian steatite was, therefore, subjected to a temperature of 1150° C. for half an hour in the blow burner and was found to have acquired a hardness of approximately 6. It had lost the slightly grey, greasy look of the original material and was pure white with an irregular fracture resembling the specimen under investigation. A microscope slide was cut of this heated talc and its appearance

closely resembled that of the specimen under investigation. The only difference between the two slides was that it was impossible to cut the control section quite so thin before it began to break up.

It therefore appears evident that the Mohenjo-Daro specimen had been carved out of natural steatite in the first instance and had then been subjected to a high temperature which induced upon it the high hardness of 6. This most interesting case shows the high degree of technical knowledge and skill among this ancient civilization, the date of the city of Mohen-jo-Daro. from which the specimen was recovered having been placed at about the third millennium B. C.

G. V. HOBSON.

RECORDS OF THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

Part 4]

1926

[December.

THE OCCURRENCE OF LOW-PHOSPHORUS COKING COAL
IN THE GIRIDIH COAL-FIELD. BY CYRIL S. FOX,
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I.—Introduction.

IT has been the prevailing opinion for more than half a century that the coking coals from the Gondwana fields are characterised by a relatively high phosphorus content. This is said to be particularly true of the coal from seams in the Damuda valley and Giridih Coal-fields. It has been claimed that but for this feature India might have been a great producer of pig iron of Bessemer quality and an important manufacturer of ferro-manganese of the highest grade. It is true that pig iron with less than 0·06 per cent. of phosphorus can only be made from specially chosen raw materials. It is also true that even with the best available domestic ores and coke it has so far been impossible in India to produce either Bessemer pig or ferro-manganese equal in quality to the best English material. In both these cases the high phosphorus content of the raw materials has been directly responsible for the lack of success. The percentages of phosphorus in the iron ores of Bonai, Mayurbhanj and Singhbhum are well known to the chemists of Jamshedpur, Kulti and Hirapur. These metallurgists are, presumably, equally familiar with or not entirely ignorant of the amounts of phosphorus in the various Indian manganese ores.

The statement has been made ("The Metallurgy of Iron," 1909, page 199, by T. Turner) that "If it is desired, with an ore containing 50 per cent. metallic iron, to produce pig iron containing under 0.06 per cent. of phosphorus, the ore must not contain over 0.02 of phosphorus unless the coke contains less than this small proportion. Hence some cokes are unsuitable for the production of iron of Bessemer quality." It is not my purpose to discuss any other subject than that of the phosphorus in Indian coking coals and the coking coals of Giridih in particular. This factor of 0.02 per cent. of phosphorus as a maximum percentage in metallurgical coke will be adopted in this paper in dealing with Indian cokes for the above mentioned special smelting purposes. It is also beyond the scope of this paper to make any suggestions with regard to similar investigations in the case of non-coking coals, iron ores, manganese ore, and the fluxes limestone and dolomite. A perusal of the available data shows that a great deal of testing has been done and numerous analyses have been made, but that only in exceedingly rare instances have special maps or plans been kept indicating the exact position from which the various samples were obtained. Without such a record probably more than half the value of an analysis is lost.

2.—Various Coking Coals.

The best quality metallurgical coke from coking coal of Indian origin has long been reputed to come from the Giridih field. Its phosphorus content was said to average 0.05 per cent. if the coke were made from selected lump coal of the lower Karharbari seam. At present only 'slack' is being used for coke making. This material is not only from 2 to 3 per cent. higher in ash than the good lump coal but also carries a larger proportion of phosphorus, so that the present-day Giridih coke frequently contains more than 0.08 per cent. of phosphorus. Among other good metallurgical cokes may be mentioned that of Bararee (machine-cut slack, No. 15 seam, an analysis of which is given below). Another Jharia coal, that from Jamadoba (mixture of Nos. 17 and 18 seams) which, as seen in the analysis below, carries a very high percentage of phosphorus, is also of good coking quality. Analyses of coking coals from the Raniganj field are also shown, including one from the Barakar measures (Ramnagar seam) and others from the Raniganj series (Dishergarh seam, Saltore). It may be here mentioned that the Chanch-Begonia-Rampur seams and the

thick Laikdih-Borea seams (Barakar stage) are also reputed to be of fair coking quality, but the phosphorus content of these coals is not at present fully known.

The coal of the lower sections of the thick Bokaro field seams has in several places been proved to be of good quality and to possess strong coking properties. As regards the Sirka-Argada upper seam of the Karanpura field, I have seen excellent samples of coke, made at Loyabad, from a mixture, 50—50, of this coal with Saltore (Dishegarh) slack. Beyond the limits of the Damuda valley the coals of Gondwana age appear, in general, to be either non-coking or to coke weakly. In the case of the Kanhan coal in the Satpura field and the Rajgumar seam in the Korba field the coal has been found to possess fairly good coking properties, but the coke is not strong enough for furnace loads. Judging by the analysis of the Ib River coal from Rampur Indian coals outside the Damuda valley vicinity are freer from phosphorus than the seams of Giridih, Raniganj, Jharia, etc. The sulphur content of the excellent coking coals of Assam makes them unfit for metallurgical work.

With regard to the analyses shown in tables I and II attention is drawn to the fact that in some cases the reckoning is given on a moisture-free basis so that I have re-calculated the percentages to include the moisture for correct comparison. With reference to the detailed composition of the ash the percentages are in terms of the coal. This makes it easier to see the true amount of the impurity, etc., in the coal. The data for New South Wales are re-calculated from data in the *Department of Mines, Mineral Resources Bulletin*, No. 23, 1916, a report by L. F. Harper and J. C. H. Mingaye. The analysis of the remarkable anthracite coal from Natal is quoted from page 39 in the brochure of the *Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau* on "Coal, Cpke. and by-Products," (1913-19), Part II, 1921.

TABLE I.—Analyses of Indian Coals.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
	Gridh.	Jharla 12.	Jharla 14.	Jharla 15.	Jharla 17 and 18.	Raniganj, Ramnagar	Raniganj, Bejdh.	Raniganj, Saltore.	Raniganj, Ghusick.	Karanpura, Sirka Lower	Argada Upper.
Fixed carbon	58.33	66.04	64.4	64.44	57.3	55.20	46.00	53.53	49.40	52.50	51.11
Volatile matter	25.10	10.34	18.7	22.30	27.4	27.40	32.50	33.83	33.60	30.47	30.76
Moisture	1.50	0.46	3.3	1.50	1.3	2.0	2.70	2.25	6.40	1.36	11.91
Sulphur	0.39	0.36	?	fixed volatile	?	?	?	0.39	?	0.91	0.05
Ash	14.68	13.80	13.60	11.00	14.00	15.40	9.80	10.00	10.60	14.76	15.35
<i>Details of Ash in percentages of coal.</i>											
Silica	9.69	8.66	6.93	4.91	7.07	8.285	4.37	5.05	5.06	8.66	8.56
Alumina	3.52	3.74	4.68	3.04	4.03	3.95	2.81	2.40	2.88	4.62	5.37
Ferrous oxide	0.61	0.96	.92	0.56	1.16	1.76	0.88	1.00	1.09	1.26	1.04
Manganese oxide	0.135	0.022	0.057
Lime	0.19	0.08	0.54	0.81	0.70	0.508	0.91	1.00	.68	0.15	.91
Magnesia	0.13	0.14	0.10	0.37	0.14	0.215	0.26	0.25	trace	0.02	0.04
Phosphorus pentoxide	0.179	0.022	0.26	0.185	0.508	0.252	0.177	0.314	.487	0.21	0.083
Other constituents, sulphur, etc.	0.210	0.02	1.36	0.367	0.37	0.79
Phosphorus in coal	0.075	0.01	0.12	0.077	0.213	0.105	.080	0.13	0.199	0.09	0.035

1. Gliridh, typical analysis, coal from Serampore Colliery. (A. Dawes Robinson).

2. No. 12 seam, Loyabad, 5 Pit (E. Spencer).

3. No. 14 seam, Ekbra Khaz (Alipur Test House through C. S. Whitworth).

4. No. 15 seam Bararee. Machine-cut slack lower part of seam (B. Wilson Haigh).

5. Nos. 17 and 18 seam, Jamadota mixed. Upper 7' 6" and lower 5' of 18 with 7' of 17 seam (F. G. Percival).

6. Ramnagar (Barak Stage) (A. Dawes Robinson).

7. Bejdh, Dabhergarh seam, 14 and 18 (Alipur Test House through C. S. Whitworth).

8. Saltore, Dabhergarh seam, 16 to 18 (B. Spencer).

9. Damra, Ghusick, 10 feet (Alipur Test House through C. S. Whitworth).

N.B.—These analyses have been re-calculated to include moisture. The sulphur is shown separately. A third of the total sulphur has been subtracted from the fixed carbon and the remainder from the volatile matter to obtain uniformity in the analyses.

TABLE II.—*Analyses of Foreign Coals (caking)*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fixed carbon	61.31	53.40	49.74	79.53	60.01	60.98
Volatile matter	24.43	35.27	41.45	9.18	33.49	32.60
Moisture	dry basis	dry basis	dry basis	dry basis	1.13	dry basis
Sulphur	?	?	?	1.53	1.92	1.08
<i>Ash details.</i>						
Silica	6.841	5.889	2.944	6.097	1.083	3.063
Alumina	4.381	2.552	2.127	3.721	0.727	1.875
Ferric oxide	?	1.180	0.729	0.622	0.787	0.275
Manganese oxide	0.001	0.018	0.001	?	0.0189	?
Lime	0.701	0.259	0.326	0.355	0.5580	0.135
Magnesia	0.190	0.050	0.131	0.152	0.0034	0.0399
Phosphorus pentoxide	0.093	0.072	0.069	0.049	0.00379	0.0518
Sulphur trioxide	0.236	0.026	0.017	0.232	0.2415	?
Alkalies, etc.	?	.	..	0.090	with P ₂ O ₅	?
TOTAL ASH	13.77	10.29	6.71	11.28	3.45	5.40
Phosphorus in coal	0.039	0.030	0.028	0.020	0.0018*	0.0217

1. New South Wales, Bulli seam, Bulli Coke Works. Also used in Broken Hill Proprietary Steel Works, Waratah. (H. P. White).

2. New South Wales, Borehole seam, WallSEND Purified Coke and Coal Co. (H. P. White).

3. New South Wales, Greta seam, Australian Gaslight Co. (H. P. White).

4. South Africa, Natal Vryheid Colliery near Mount Ngwibi. Coal used for coking by the Natal Ammonium Ltd. N=2.212 per cent.

5. English Lancashire, 4-foot Wigan. Ash and coal analyses of different samples. *Phosphoric acid included with the alkalies.

6. United States of America, Connellsville. Ash analyses of sample with 96 per cent. ash reduced to terms of 5.40 per cent. for comparison with proximate analysis.

The Research Department of Messrs. Bird & Co., through Dr. E. Spencer, has very kindly given me the following particulars, regarding stray analyses by Valentine, of the phosphorus content of some cokes made from various seams in the Jharia coal-field :—

No.	Seam.	Ash.	Phosphorus.
13A	Jharia (Standard) hard coke . . .	13.0	0.03
14	Ditto	15.7	0.05
15	Ditto	17.4	0.12
12	Loyabad (Pit 5)*.	24.0	0.025
13	Ditto	17.0	0.097
14	Ditto	15.6	0.058
13	Loyabad (Pit 6)*.	17.8	0.093
14	Ditto	20.0	0.088
9	Govindpur soft coke	27.0	0.027
10	Ditto	26.0	0.055
..	Bottom seam (Choranpore?) . . .	21.0	0.04
16	Standard hard coke	30.84	0.59
15	Loyabad (No. 3 incline top section) . .	17.0	0.15
15	Ditto (bottom section)	20.1	0.26
11	Jharia Khas hard coke.	24.6	0.22
12	Ditto	19.0	0.24
1	Tehulmoni hard coke	20.0	0.17
14	Ditto	21.0	0.23
13	Sandra soft coke	22.0	0.19
14	Ditto	19.5	0.14
15	Ditto	21.8	0.23

N.B.—These figures are for coke and not coal, but as all the phosphorus will be found in the coke it is only necessary to know the volatile matter in the corresponding coal to arrive at the phosphorus figure for the coal.

* Compare with No. 2 analysis in Table I.

It may here be mentioned that the average ash, sulphur and phosphorus percentages in the coke used by the Tata Iron and Steel Company may be taken respectively as 21 to 22, 0·5 and 0·16 respectively.

The analysis of the Ib River (Rampur Colliery) coal is shown below together with the rather exceptional analysis* of a low-phosphorus Jharia coal (No. 14A seam, Standard colliery):—

	Ib River Coal.	No. 14A Seam Jharia.
Fixed carbon	51·13	62·93
Volatile matter	30·01	27·72
Moisture	2·50	1·09
Sulphur	0·36	?
Ash	16·00	8·26

Details of ash in percentages of the coal:—

Silica	7·76	4·89
Alumina	5·61	2·65
Ferrio oxide	1·23	0·31
Manganese oxide	0·305	..
Lime	0·24	0·127
Magnesia	0·128	0·101
Phosphoric pentoxide	0·083	0·019
Other constituents	0·79	..
Phosphorus in the coal	0·035	0·009

Analysis of Ib River coal supplied by F. G. Percival.

Analysis of 14A seam Standard Colliery supplied by E. Spencer.

From the analyses given above it is seen that very few Indian coals would give a coke within the limit 0·02 per cent. phosphorus previously accepted as a maximum. Dr. E. Spencer of Bird & Co., has published one analysis of coal from No. 14-A, seam (Standard colliery, Jharia) which shows a phosphorus percentage in the coal as low as 0·009 and says that No. 14 seam in the same area also shows a low phosphorus content in some analyses. None of the Australian coals, not even that used by the smelters at Waratah, will give a fuel suitable for the production of pig iron of Bessemer quality. Certain South African coals (Dumbi with 0·01 and Natal (?) 0·008) give a phosphorus percentage which is satisfactory, but I have not been able to obtain the necessary details of their composition.

* See also analysis No. 2 in Table I.

The exceptional Natal (Vryheid) coal quoted by me is used for gas making, largely for the recovery of ammonium sulphate owing to its richness in nitrogen. Among British coals the coke made from Newcastle coal contains as little as 0.012 per cent. of phosphorus. In Yorkshire the phosphorus content of the coke varies from 0.009 (Monckton) to 0.022 (Barrow) and 0.032 (Robin Hood) per cent. Derbyshire cokes have percentages of phosphorus from 0.006 (Hucknall) and 0.011 (Bentnick) to 0.036 (Bolsover). South Wales coals give cokes with from 0.022 to 0.05 per cent.

On the Continent, Ruhr coke averages 0.022 to 0.035 per cent. of phosphorus, but there is a noticeable increase in the phosphorus content from "fat" coals (Gelsenkirchen, 0.0145 P.) to "lean" coals (Sprockhövel, 0.0248 P.). Normal French cokes contain from 0.022 to 0.04 per cent. of phosphorus. Of 56 analyses of Westphalian coke 4 samples showed less than 0.01 per cent. of phosphorus, 41 contained between 0.01 to 0.02, 10 varied between 0.02 and 0.03 and only one had over 0.03 per cent. of phosphorus.

In America, "Pennsylvania coke shows on an average 0.01 per cent. of phosphorus, that from Mingo mountain (Tenn) 0.008 per cent., and Puineville coke only 0.007 per cent. of phosphorus. A larger quantity is found in coke from West Virginia, which has 0.027 per cent., while that from Illinois contains 0.033 per cent. In coke from upper Freeport coal (Alleghany River), McCreath found phosphorus to the extent of 0.1085 per cent., the coal itself containing 0.0684 per cent." ("Chemistry of Coke," 1904, page 119, W. Carrick Anderson.)

It is not to be forgotten that many foreign coals are amenable to improvement in quality by washing. This treatment at present appears to be unsatisfactory with most Indian coals. In this connection may be mentioned the case of the coal used in the Mount Lyall Coke Works at Port Kembla in New South Wales, where an unwashed coal (A) gave washed coal (B) with a coke (C) having the following composition:—

	(A)	(B)	(C)
Moisture	0.77	0.72	0.73
Volatile matter	22.30	23.56	1.14
Fixed carbon	60.81	63.62	81.87
Ash	16.12	12.10	15.96
Sulphur	0.262	0.269	0.31
Specific gravity	1.406	1.385	1.812

The ash of this coke (C) contained :—

Moisture at 100°C	0.07 per cent.
Silica	54.11 "
Alumina	33.46 "
Ferric oxide	4.75 "
Ferrous oxide	0.23 "
Manganese oxide	trace
Lime	1.92 "
Magnesia	0.53 "
Barium oxide	0.30 "
Strontium oxide	present
Soda	0.61 "
Potash	1.74 "
Lithia	present
Titanium oxide	1.45 "
Phosphorus pentoxide	0.50 "
Vanadæ oxide	0.01 "
Sulphur trioxide	0.55 "
Phosphorus in coke	0.033

Analyst H. P. White : See Paper by Harper and Mingaye (*op cit*).

It is unfortunate that no detailed analysis of the ash of the unwashed coal is available as the percentage of phosphorus in the two coals,—unwashed (A) and washed (B)—might have been compared.

3.—Giridih ; Karharbari Lower Seam.

While preparing my report on "The Raw Materials for the Iron and Steel Industry of India" for the Tariff Board in 1923¹, I noticed marked variations in the percentages of phosphorus in different analyses of Indian coking coals. From the available data it was impossible to discover if those variations in the phosphorus content were due to a variableness in the original constituents of the plant material or to the impregnation of the coal by secondary calcium phosphate. I believed that a large part of the phosphorus, and therefore the variable part, had been introduced into the coal subsequent to its formation. In this opinion I found myself in agreement with the views of the metallurgical chemists at the three smelting centres in India. Dr. E. Spencer of Messrs. Bird & Co.'s Research Department had meanwhile produced evidence in support of this opinion and handed me a copy of his published work. With this I shall deal later. I had, previous to obtaining any knowledge

¹ See *Trans. Min. Geol. Inst. Ind.*, Vol. XX, Pt. 2, 1925.

of his work in this connection, decided to investigate the matter, and chose as the most suitable place the East Indian Railway collieries at Giridih. With the very kind assistance of Mr. H. Lancaster, Superintendent of these collieries, carefully collected samples were obtained from Serampore colliery and Karharbari colliery. The places were selected with regard to the location of faults, dolerite and mica-peridotite dykes and certain areas free of these disturbances (*See Plate 27*). Mr. A. Dawes Robinson of the Bengal Iron Co., Ltd., at Kulti very kindly undertook to have these samples analysed. His results are shown in the following Tables III, IV, V, VI, VII and VIII.

TABLE NO. III.—*Analyses of Samples A (see Map plate 27), Deep Pit, Serampore Colliery, Giridih.*

—	Roof Coal, 4 feet.	Top Middle Coal, 4 feet.	Middle Coal, 9 feet.	Lower Middle Coal, 4 feet.	Floor Coal, 3 feet.
Fixed carbon	61.06	58.33	61.61	55.48	44.66
Volatile matter	24.40	25.10	24.40	23.78	15.55
Moisture	1.40	1.50	1.20	1.60	1.80
Sulphur	0.40	0.39	0.39	0.34	0.39
Ash	12.74	14.68	12.40	18.80	37.60

Details of ash impurities given as percentages in the coal.

Silica	9.019	9.689	6.572	10.908	..
Alumina	2.567	3.523	3.744	5.720	..
Ferric oxide	0.895	0.616	1.240	0.123	..
Manganese oxide	0.132	0.135	0.135	0.193	..
Lime	0.255	0.188	0.198	0.206	..
Magnesia	0.108	0.132	0.098	0.165	..
Sulphur trioxide	0.018	0.023	0.019	0.033	..
Phosphorus pentoxide	0.112	0.179	0.270	0.114	0.127
Alkalies	0.137	0.187	0.121	0.225	..
Phosphorus in coal	0.049	0.078	0.119	0.048	0.056

N.B.—The sulphur trioxide in the ash re-calculated to the coal is misleading.

All the above coal is coking coal.

	Per cent.
Average of the full thickness of the seam, 24 feet (24 samples)	
Ash	17.05
Phosphorus in coal	0.0987

TABLE NO. IV.—*Analyses of Samples B (see Map plate 27), North Central No. 2 Pit, Serampore Colliery, Giridih.*

	UPPER COAL	UPPER MIDDLE COAL			MIDDLE COAL.			Lower Middle Coal, 5 feet.	Floor Coal, 3 feet.
	Roof Coal, 4 feet.	1 foot.	2 feet.	1 foot.	1 foot.	1 foot.	1 foot.		
Fixed carbon .	57.81	58.43	58.93	54.75	63.43	57.17	61.87	53.35	43.35
Volatile matter	26.0	23.8	25.10	20.80	26.00	23.20	23.10	24.50	17.5
Moisture .	1.40	1.40	1.45	1.60	1.40	1.40	1.30	1.40	1.20
Sulphur . .	0.39	0.37	0.37	0.35	0.37	0.33	0.33	0.35	0.35
Ash . .	14.90	21.00	14.15	23.00	8.80	17.90	13.40	20.40	37.00

Details of ash impurities given as percentages in the coal.

Silica . .	10.231	..	9.706	..	5.033	12.53	7.396
Alumina . .	2.443	..	3.945	..	2.413	3.615	4.054
Ferric oxide .	1.370	..	0.727	..	0.754	0.823	0.956
Manganese oxide	0.147	..	0.128	..	0.092	0.194	0.132
Lime . .	0.233	..	0.240	..	0.202	0.322	0.321
Magnesia . .	0.156	..	0.152	..	0.104	0.182	0.163
Phosphoric acid	0.034	0.037	0.033	0.033	0.013	0.071	0.175	0.203	0.065
Sulphur trioxide	0.026	..	0.017	..	0.011	0.025	0.020
Alkalies, etc. .	0.156	..	0.179	..	0.033	0.0134	0.173
Phosphorus in coal.	0.015	0.017	0.014	0.015	0.045	0.032	0.076	0.089	0.03

N.B.—The sulphur trioxide in the ash re-calculated to the coal is misleading.

All this coal is coking coal.

Per cent.

Average of the full thickness of the seam, 19 feet, (19 samples).—

Ash	19.01
Phosphorus in coal	0.045

TABLE NO. V.—Analyses of Samples C (see Map plate 27), Jubilee Pit, Karharbari Colliery, Giridih.

	Top of seam.	Middle of seam	Bottom of seam.
Fixed carbon	64.34	65.94	60.53
Volatile matter	26.50	25.50	23.50
Moisture	1.40	1.20	1.60
Sulphur	0.36	0.36	0.37
Ash ,	7.40	7.00	5.00

Details of impurities in ash as percentages in the coal.

Silica	5.032	3.92	2.94
Alumina	1.740	1.84	1.26
Ferric oxide	0.232	0.84	0.520
Manganese oxide	0.068	0.071	0.051
Lime ,	0.133	0.084	0.060
Magnesia	0.077	0.110	0.082
Phosphorus pentoxide	0.013	0.015	0.0055
Sulphur trioxide	0.013	0.011	0.009
Alkalies	0.078	0.099	0.072
Phosphorus in coal	0.0059	0.007	0.0025

N.B.—The sulphur trioxide of ash shown as percentages of coal is misleading.

All coking coals.

Average of samples for a thickness of 14 feet 6 inches of the seam.

	Per cent.
Ash	6.47
Phosphorus	0.0082

TABLE NO. VI.—*Analyses of Samples D (see Map plate 27), Bitagarha Pit, Karharbari Colliery, Giridih.*

—	Top of seam.	Middle of seam.	Bottom of seam.
Fixed carbon	63·16	65 15	50·95
Volatile matter	23·00	28·10	19 80
Moisture	1·40	1·50	1·40
Sulphur	0·44	0·45	0·45
Ash	12 00	4·80	27·80

Details of impurities in ash as percentages in the coal.

Silica	7·438	2·784	14·905
Alumina	3·432	1·331	5·463
Ferric oxide	0·480	0 475	2·650
Manganese oxide	0·111	0·044	0 202
Lime	0·072	0·067	0·328
Magnesia	0·129	0·037	0·353
Phosphorus pentoxide	0·013	0·015	0·013
Sulphur trioxide	0·019	0·008	0·049
Alkalies, etc.	0·254	0·075	0·421
Phosphorus in coal	0·0057	0·007	0·0063

N.B.—The sulphur trioxide of ash re calculated to the coal is misleading.

Per cent.

Average of samples for the full thickness of the seam, 18 feet:—

Ash	14·73
Phosphorus	0·0063

TABLE NO. VII.—*Analyses of Samples E, Ramnadih Pit, Karharbari Colliery, Giridih.*

—	Top of seam.	Middle of seam.	Bottom of seam.
Fixed carbon	66.61	60.72	64.19
Volatile matter	21.10	24.80	25.20
Moisture	1.80	1.40	1.40
Sulphur	0.49	0.48	0.41
Ash	10.00	12.60	8.80
<i>Details of impurities in ash as percentages in the coal.</i>			
Silica	7.08	8.290	4.963
Alumina	1.840	3.094	2.544
Ferrio oxide	0.60	0.647	0.728
Manganese oxide	0.093	0.117	0.130
Lime	0.140	0.126	0.140
Magnesia	0.108	0.181	0.139
Phosphorus pentoxide	0.022	0.027	0.019
Sulphur trioxide	0.008	0.020	0.012
Alkalies, etc.	0.109	0.094	0.121
Phosphorus in coal	0.01	0.012	0.009

N.B.—The sulphur trioxide of ash re-calculated for the coal is misleading.

	Per cent.
Average of samples for the full thickness of the seam, 10 feet :—	
Ash	10.47
Phosphorus	0.0108

TABLE VIII.—*Averages of Samples.*

Samples.	Ash.	Phosphorus in Ash.	Phosphorus in Coal.	Depth to top of seam.	Thick- ness of seam.
Deep Pit	17.05	0.579	0.0987	840 ft. (?)	24 ft.
North Central No. 2 . . .	19.01	0.238	0.045	340 ft. (?)	19 ft.
Jubilee	6.47	0.077	0.0052	772 ft.	14 ft. 6 in.*
Bitagarha	14.73	0.042	0.0063	222 ft.	18 ft.
Ramanadih	10.47	0.100	0.0103	150 ft.	10 ft.

* In the Jubilee Pit there is a band of stone situated as follows :—

5' Coal.
3' Stone.
9' 6" Coal.

I have re-calculated the ash components in terms of their percentages in the coal. These analyses clearly show the marked variations in the phosphorus percentage not only in the coal at the five places sampled, but in the vertical section of the coal at each place. It is most interesting to discover that the phosphorus percentage is highest in the middle part of the seam, which, consisting of a larger proportion of bright coal laminae than either the top or bottom of the seam, is also generally lower in its ash content. This is very marked in the case of the sample (C) from the Jubilee Pit (Table V) where the middle coal underlies a 3-foot band of stone. In this case the floor coal appears to be absent or to have been missed.

In reply to an enquiry as regards the entry of percolating water from the coal into the workings Mr. Fullwood, the Officiating Superintendent, states that in the case of the Karharbari Colliery "what does come through is from the middle to the bottom of the lower section of the seam." With regard to the Serampore Colliery he states:—"In other places where galleries are being driven to develop new areas I find that water only percolates through the sections where the coal is bright and soft and not through the dull and hard sections, as the latter are more compact and consequently impervious." The importance of Mr. Fullwood's communication will be shown in the next section of this paper.

Details of the samples taken from the Deep Pit, Table III, and North Central Pit No. 2, Table IV, are as follows :—

Section of Coal at A, Deep Pit.

Roof.	
Feet.	
Roof Coal.	1 Laminated, hard, brightish-dull coal (<i>durain</i> with some laminæ of <i>clarain</i>); a little pyrite visible in cleavage planes.
	2 Similar to the 1st foot but with a granular texture.
	3 Similar to 1st and 2nd; pyrite not evident; <i>fusain</i> well seen in partings.
	4 Laminated dull and brightish coal; pyrite visible; specimen like top 3 feet.
Top Middle Coal.	5 Laminated dull and bright coal; sample fragments smaller in sizes but the material brighter and better than the roof coal.
	6 Brightish, dull, laminated coal, very like the top 4 feet; sample drier than that of the coal above it.
	7 Very like the 5th foot; dull and bright laminæ well pronounced; rather friable.
	8 Largely of dull, hard coal, not unlike the roof coal; sample in small fragments due to the hardness of the coal; laminated structure clearly seen.
Lower Middle Coal.	9 Laminated, dull and bright coal, with pronounced banding; pyrite evident in cleavage planes; sample rather damp; development of white coating in cracks.
	10 Laminated dull and bright coal, its general look brightish; fragments hard but the sample not as damp as the 9th foot; no pyrite or white matter evident.
	11 Pronounced banding of dull and bright laminæ; general appearance dull; material fairly hard.
	12 Brightish, dull laminated coal; very like roof coal; sample fairly dry; material moderately hard and metallic looking.
	13 Very like roof coal; fine granular rather than laminated structure; evidence of iron stains on cleat surfaces; sample dry.
	14 Almost identical with the 13th foot.
	15 Laminated, dull to bright (metallic) coal, with granular texture evident; cleat rhombohedral; material clean, dry and hard.
	16 Like the 15th foot but with more <i>clarain</i> ; material consequently more friable; fairly dry; white powdery material in joints; cleat faces slightly stained.
	17 Similar to the 16th foot; cleat vertical; general appearance dull metallic; somewhat friable but fairly dry.

Section of coal at A, Deep Pit—contd.

Bottom Coal.	Feet. 18	Dull to bright, fairly hard, dry coal ; structure laminated to granular ; slight development of white powder in cleat ; flakes of <i>usain</i> evident on lamination planes.
	19	Similar to the 18th foot, bright laminae better seen ; coal slightly stained on cleat surfaces ; fairly hard and dry.
	20	Dull, metallic, laminated coal ; some portions like shale ; hard, fairly dry, but the <i>clarain</i> laminae very thin.
	21	Similar to the 20th foot but more uniformly dull, metallic ; brittle and moist.
Floor Coal.	22	Dull, shale-like coal ; hard and dry.
	23	Dull, shale-like coal with some thin laminae of <i>clarain</i> ; dry to somewhat moist.
	24	Dull, shale-like coal, better than the 22nd foot but worse than the 23rd , hard and dry to moist.
Floor.		

Section of coal at B, North Central No. 2 Pit.

Roof.		
Roof Coal.	Feet. 1	Dull, finely laminated, metallic-looking coal ; hard, somewhat brittle and damp.
	2	Similar to the top ; perhaps a little less dull in appearance ; less brittle and slightly damper.
	3	Similar to the 1st and 2nd feet but brighter ; brittle, dry and hard.
	4	Finely laminated, dull to bright coal ; fairly hard and dry.
Upper Coal.	5	Laminated dull to bright coal ; rather metallic-looking ; fairly dry to damp.
	6	Well defined laminae of bright and dull bands in the coal ; material friable, hard, and moderately dry.
	7	Bright to dull coal ; rather metallic-looking ; streaks of <i>fusain</i> between pronounced laminae of dull and bright coal ; bright coal decidedly friable.

P.T.O.

Section of coal at B, North Central No. 2 Pit—contd.

Feet.		
Middle Coal.	8	Dull, laminated, shale-like coal; resembles floor coal and must be clearly defined in the mine; probably corresponds with stone band of Jubilee Pit.
	9	Bright to dull coal; dry but friable, due to <i>clarain</i> laminae.
	10	Pronounced lamination—dull and bright laminae; <i>clarain</i> well seen.
	11	Laminated dull to bright coal—dull bands $\frac{1}{2}$ inch deep; moist; material fairly hard.
Bottom Coal.	12	General appearance bright to dull, metallic-looking coal; hard, brittle and fairly dry.
	13	Laminated, bright to dull coal; hard and fairly dry.
	14	Hard, fairly dry, dull to brightish (metallic) coal.
	15	Laminated, dull, metallic coal; hard, fairly dry, with granular texture seen.
Floor Coal.	16	Laminated, bright and dull coal; granular texture evident; fairly hard and dry.
	17	Dull-metallic coal—practically carbonaceous shale; dry to moist; hard.
	18	Finely laminated shaly coal; hard and dry.
Floor.	19	Finely laminated, dull metallic (shaly) coal; dry and hard.

The coal from the Lower Karharbari seam cannot by any manner of means be described as bright in any section, and the details given above also apply generally to the sections from which samples C, D, and E were collected. It may be said in summary that the coal of this seam throughout the limits of Serampore and Karharbari collieries is usually dull coloured and tolerably homogeneous in structure, the layers of very bright jetty coal being few and ill marked. These *clarain* laminae are more frequent in the middle sections of the seam as a rule. As seen from the sections the thickness of the seam varies, but there is a general good quality in its composition.

The analyses shown above bring out many points of considerable interest, the most attractive, from an economic point of view

being the low phosphorus content of the seam in the workings of the Karharbari colliery. It is evident, from the three positions sampled, that an excellent fuel is available in this area. If further tests prove that this low phosphorous percentage of the coal is uniform throughout the western side of the East Indian Railway's property at Giridih, as appears to be the case, then the reserves of low phosphorus coal in this area are of some value. These reserves have been estimated in the next section.

4.—Reserves of High-grade Coking Coal in India.

According to W. Carrick Anderson ("Chemistry of Coke," 1904. pp. 157—158): "The following may be regarded as the conditions that ought to be fulfilled by a coke which is to be employed in the smelting of iron, and which may be said to hold for Westphalia, Belgium, France and England :—

- | | |
|---|--------------|
| (1) 1 per cent. sulphur,
(2) .018 per cent. phosphorus,
(3) 4 per cent. water,
(4) 9 per cent. ash,
(5) 6 per cent. dust on delivery, | } As maxima. |
| (6) 40—50 per cent. pore space (in foundry coke 25—40 per cent.). | |
| (7) The coke must possess a hardness of 80 kilos. per sq. cm. | |
| (8) The weight of 1 cc. of the coke (dried at 100° C.) should be 800 to 900 mgrms." | |

On a basis such as the above the only Indian coking coal of this grade occurs in the Karharbari lower seam (and there only in strictly localized areas and sections of the seam) of the State-owned collieries at Giridih. However, in view of the actual utilization of the coke at present being made from coal in other parts of the Giridih field, and from various seams in the Jharia and Raniganj coal-fields, and the certainty that similar coke can be made by mixing the above coals with coal from the Bokaro and Karanpura fields, it is evident that the European standard quoted above is not strictly applicable, except for very special purposes, for metallurgical coke in India. The allowance for ash in Indian coke is often over 20 per cent.

The subject of reserves of coking coal, as available in India, has, so far as accessible data go, been fully discussed recently (*Trans., Min. Geol. Inst. India*, Vol. XX, Pts. 2 and 4, 1926). In these discussions no specification of a metallurgical coke was brought forward, except perhaps the opinion of one member stipulating that the ash should not exceed 20 per cent.; this amount was shown to be less than that in the coke actually employed at Jamshedpur. It seems unnecessary that any standard should be adopted; this is a matter for the ironmasters to fix or disclose from their experience when buying coking coal or coke.

There is one constituent, phosphorus, the presence of which, above a certain small percentage, renders the coke unfit for use in the preparation of pig iron of Bessemer quality or for the preparation of high-grade manganese alloys. The limit adopted as the phosphorus-content of coke for these purposes appears to average about 0.02 per cent. and this amount has evidently been accepted by Indian smelters, and is recognised in this paper. Consequently, from the analyses of coals shown in Tables I to VIII there is no low-phosphorus coking coal in India other than that now shown to occur in the Giridih coalfields. It is quite likely that a similar method of research [*i.e.* (a) the careful taking of samples, foot by foot, from several places in the same seam worked by a single colliery; (b) the positions from which samples are taken to be recorded on a map specially kept for this purpose; and (c) detailed analyses of the coal and ash of these samples carefully made] may also lead to the discovery of other areas in other fields containing low-phosphorus coking coal. These investigations must be left to the enterprise of the companies either engaged in working the coal or in co-operation with the consumers of the special low-phosphorus coke.

Reserves of Low-Phosphorus (0.02 per cent. phosphorus) Coking Coal in Karharbari Colliery.

My examination of the Giridih field, restricted to the collieries worked by Government, lead me to make the following tentative estimate of the total available reserves of low-phosphorus coking coal of the quality (0.02 per cent. P) stipulated by ironmasters

for employment in the production of Bessemer pig and ferro-manganese.

The coal-bearing area in Karharbari colliery is roughly 1,200 acres.

With 140 tons per inch per acre, and an average thickness of 15 feet, the total tonnage will be 30,240,000 tons.

Assuming $1/3$ has already been worked the remainder is 20,160,000 tons.

Allowing $1/3$ of this to be lost in working, the available coal in the colliery is 13,440,000 tons.

Assuming that about $1/3$ of this is unsuitable by being too high in its phosphorus content, the reserves are 8,960,000 † tons.

With a daily output of 1,200 tons or an annual production of 448,000 tons the supplies should last 20 years.

From these calculations, which are probably open to slight modification, both as regards the extent of the unworked coal and the average thickness of the seam, it is clear that these reserves of low-phosphorus coking coal are small and that this fuel should be recognised as a valuable State asset. Continued use of this coal for locomotive and foundry purposes would seem, in a technical sense, to be a squandering of a mineral asset for a purpose other than that for which this class of coal is alone suitable. It is not to be forgotten that mineral assets of this nature when once worked are in a sense lost, and such reserves are irreplaceable.

The high thermal value of the Giridih fuel is fully known. The whole of the lump coal produced is sent away for use as steam coal on the State Railways. All the slack or small coal is converted into coke, chiefly for foundry purposes. Very little, if any, of the local fuel is used at Giridih for steam-raising (power) purposes. It has been found more economical to fetch slack coal from Bokaro for the colliery consumption at Giridih. These domestic economies show how valuable the coal from the Lower Karharbari seam is. The analyses given in this paper indicate that parts of this seam are, from a metallurgical point of view, yet more valuable than was previously thought. To bring out this point a little more clearly the following data have been added for those conversant with the technical considerations prevailing in the iron and steel industry of India.

† It may be mentioned that 100 tons of coal produce quite 75 tons of Giridih coke so that the reserves of low-phosphorus metallurgical coke will be roughly 6,720,000 tons.

(a) *Estimated Production of Bessemer-quality Pig Iron.*

By Bessemer pig is meant a cast iron with less than 0.06 per cent. of phosphorus and having a composition similar to A (see below) as against B which is a highly phosphoric pig iron.

—	A.	B.	C.	D.
	Per cent. 2.60	Per cent. 2.68	Per cent. 3.13	Per cent.
Graphite	1.20	..	0.23	
Combined carbon	1.78	0.11	2.25	2.50 and over.
Silicon	0.02	0.04	0.022	0.025
Sulphur	0.04	3.29	1.20	0.35 to 0.40
Phosphorus	0.13	3.84	1.40	1.25 to 1.50
Manganese				

C. Grades 1, 2 and 3, pig iron made by the Bengal Iron Co., at Kulti.

D. Grade 1, pig iron made by the Tata Iron and Steel Co., at Jamshedpur.

Assuming that one ton of coke smelts $1\frac{1}{2}$ tons of ore and requires $\frac{1}{2}$ ton of limestone to produce 1 ton of pig iron, it is evident that the 8,960,000 tons of coal, which give 6,720,000 tons of coke, are capable of smelting 10,080,000 tons of ore and yielding 6,720,000 tons of iron.

An annual production of pig iron corresponding to the annual output of coal, as previously estimated, would be 336,000 tons. This output could be maintained for 20 years if all the coal of low phosphorus content in Karharbari Colliery were used for the production of pig iron of Bessemer quality.

(b) *The Manufacture of Ferro-manganese.*

The European standard of quality for the ferro-alloy, averaging 78 to 80 per cent. of manganese, stipulates that it should contain 0.3 or less than 0.3 per cent. phosphorus to be of the highest grade.

In the manufacture of this high-grade ferro-manganese 3 tons of coke normally smelt 2 tons of ore, with a limestone flux, and yield 1 ton of 78-80 ferro-manganese.

This means that the 8,960,000 tons of Karharbari coal (6,720,000 tons of coke) will be capable of smelting 4,480,000 tons of good quality manganese ore and yielding 2,240,000 tons of ferro-manganese.

If all the Karharbari low-phosphorus coke, produced from the annual output of coal as previously estimated, is used in the manufacture of ferro-manganese the annual production of this alloy will be 112,000 tons. This output can be maintained for 20 years.

(c) *Typical Indian Iron-ores.*

—	1	2	3	4	5
Metallic iron . . .	59.78	66.78	64.00	66.35	69.21
Phosphorus . . .	0.078	0.044	0.05	0.058	0.005
Sulphur	0.002	0.108	0.012
Silica, etc. . .	5.16	1.49	3.53	1.44	0.82
Manganese . . .	0.61	0.192	0.04	0.151	..

1. *Gurumahisani (Mayurbhanj)*.—Ore average of 5 years output (H. C. Jones, *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, LVII, 1925); sulphur not stated, probably 0.028 ?; used by the Tata Iron and Steel Co., Ltd.

2. *Sulaipat (or Okampad) (Mayurbhanj)*.—Average ore shipped in 1923 (*op. cit.*, p. 146); sulphur not stated; used by the Tata Iron and Steel Co., Ltd.

3. *Pansira Buru (Singbhum)*.—Ore average analysis (*op. cit.*, p. 134): SiO_2 2.10, CaO 0.16, Al_2O_3 1.25, MgO 0.18, MnO 0.06 per cent.; used by the Bengal Iron Co., Ltd. and also by the Indian Iron and Steel Co., Ltd.

4. *Rajhara (Drug)*.—Average of 64 samples (*op. cit.*, p. 154); $2\frac{1}{2}$ million tons reported below Bessemer limit of phosphorus.

5. *Lohara (Chanda)*.—Pipalgaon is reported to be better; 100 million tons estimated at Lohara; some of the Lohara ore is reported to have been employed by the Tata Iron and Steel Co., Ltd., for the production of pig iron of Bessemer quality.

N.B.—Jamda (Barabil area, Keonjhar); iron ore, with 65 Fe and P 0.05 to 0.025, is supplied to the Shell Factory at Ishapur under guarantee that the phosphorus will not exceed 0.05 per cent.; over 10 million tons of this quality are said to have been located to the west of Barabil.

The following are typical foreign iron ores used for smelting :

Iron.	Phosphorus.	Sulphur.	Country.
61.17	0.004	Nil.	English. Best Cumberland hæmatite.
38.2	0.31	0.12	English. Dry Northampton carbonate ore.
47.06	0.019	0.04	Spanish. Best Rubio (Bilbao).
54.65	0.014	0.04	Spanish. Calcined Bilbao spathic ore.
68.70	0.02	0.05	South Australian. Iron Knob hæmatite used by Broken Hill Proprietary Co. at Waratah, Newcastle, N. S. W.
58.54	0.016	Trace	Nova Scotia hæmatite from the Beaton deposits.
to	to	to	
68.20	0.56	1.27	
58.83	0.62	0.069	U. S. A., Mesabi hydrated hæmatite.
58.60	0.211	0.012	U. S. A., Marquette, Swazny ore.
52.23	0.074	0.012	U. S. A., Menominee.
52.0	0.012	0.03	Algeria, Aflalou, Department of Constantine.

(d) Indian Limestone used as Flux.

—	1	2	3	4
Calcium carbonate . . .	91.80	95.80	53.57	94.5 to 96.8.
Magnesium carbonate . . .	1.70	2.25	43.77	
Phosphorus *	?	?	?	traces.
Sulphur	?	?	?	
Silica	5.15	2.70	2 to 3†	2 to 2.5.
Alumina	0.52	0.80	0.70	3 to 1.2.
Ferric oxide	0.32		1.00	
Ferrous oxide	0.25	
Moisture or H ₂ O	0.10	

* Phosphorus content from Gangpur material roughly 0.015. Amounts in other cases unknown.

1. Sutta limestone as used previously by the Bengal Iron Co., Ltd., at Kulti. (J. Coggin Brown; *The Mining Magazine*, June, 1921).

2. Bisra limestone from Paraghat and Baraduar, used by the Bengal Iron Co., Ltd., Kulti. (H. C. Jones; *Rec. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, LVII, 1925, p. 133).

3. Gangpur dolomite used by Tata and Sons Ltd., at Jamshedpur. (J. Coggin Brown; *op. cit.*).

4. Kandara, Chanda. Details not known. (C. S. Fox; *op. cit.*).

† Insoluble (silica) residue,

(e) *Analyses of Manganese ore as received at Middlesborough (1897—1906).* (See *Mem. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXXVII, pt. 3, 1909, p. 517, etc.).

Mn.	Fe.	P.	Moisture.	From.
50.49	6.28	0.126	0.72	India.
45.28	0.76	0.147	8.67	Russia, Caucasus.
44.6	3.35	0.046	11.35	Brazil.
47.51	0.41	0.015	1.01	Chili.

The following were buyers' stipulations¹ about the years 1907 to 1909 as regards manganese ore from India :

Mn.	Fe.	P.	Moisture.	From.
52 to 54	4 to 6	0.07 to 0.08	6 to 7	Nagpur, Balaghat, Bhandara, Central Provinces Prospecting Syndicate.
51 to 52	6 to 7	0.09 to 0.11	7 to 8	1st grade, Nagpur, Bhandara, Central India Manganese Co.
46 to 48	6 to 8	0.03 to 0.17	9 to 11	2nd grade, Nagpur, Bhandara, Central India Manganese Co.
50 to 52	5 to 6	0.11 to 0.14	6 to 8	Nagpur, Indian Manganese Co.
44 to 46	13 to 16	0.05 to 0.06	2 to 6	Sandur, Jambon et Cie.

Fluxes in Iron Smelting.

The impurities in the ore and the ash in the fuel are, in blast furnaces, usually removed in the form of a fusible slag. This slag normally has the composition of a mono-silicate— $2\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{SiO}_2 + 2\text{MO} \cdot \text{SiO}_2$, where MO represents lime (CaO) and magnesia (MgO).

¹ *Loc. cit.*, p. 514. Manganese ores, evidently in limited quantities, have been found in India with less than 0.1 per cent. of phosphorus but no guarantee is now (1926) apparently given that such ores will be supplied with less than 0.12 per cent. of phosphorus.

It is conceivable that the constituents in the ash and the gangue of the ore may be just correct to produce a monosilicate slag ; if not a flux must be added. This is done according to calculations based on the following proportions for mono-silicates :—

(a)	2 Al_2O_3	requires	3 SiO_2	
or	204 "		180 "	
or	1 "		0.882 "	
or	1.13 "		1 "	
(b)	2 CaO		1 SiO_2	
or	112 "		60 "	
or	1 "		0.535 "	
or	1.86 "		1 "	
(c)	2 MgO		1 SiO_2	
or	80 "		60 "	
or	1 "		0.75 "	
or	1.33 "		1 "	

N.B.—For sesquisilicates multiply the figure for SiO_2 by 1.5, for bisilicates by 2.

To take the case of a typical iron ore—Pansira Buru—which contains :—

Fe_2O_3 64 per cent., SiO_2 2.1 per cent., Al_2O_3 1.25 per cent., CaO 0.15 per cent. and MgO 0.18 per cent.

and (A) a typical coke (Bararee, ash 15 per cent.) which has as impurities :—

Fe_2O_3 0.719 per cent., SiO_2 6.255 per cent., Al_2O_3 5.013 per cent., CaO 1.039 per cent. and MgO 0.473 per cent.

or another (B) (Ramnagar, ash 18 per cent.) which has as impurities :—

Fe_2O_3 2.057 per cent., SiO_2 9.684 per cent., Al_2O_3 4.620 per cent., CaO 0.594 per cent., and MgO 0.252 per cent.

(The percentage of phosphorus in both these coles is about the same roughly—0.12 per cent.).

or (C) Giridih coke (Jubilee Pit, Karharbari colliery, ash 6 per cent.) :—

Fe_2O_3 0.656 per cent., SiO_2 4.88 per cent., Al_2O_3 2.01 per cent., CaO 0.112 per cent., MgO 0.097 per cent., P in coke 0.0065 per cent.

(A) Now making a fair guess that with any of the above cokes the proportion of fuel is 21 parts to every 32 of ore, then using Bararee coke the impurities in the charge will be :—

	In the ore.	In Bararee coke.	Total.
SiO ₂ . . .	0.672	1.313	1.985
Al ₂ O ₃ . . .	0.400	1.053	1.453
CaO . . .	0.048	0.218	0.266
MgO . . .	0.058	0.099	0.157

However, 1.453 parts of Al₂O₃ require 1.248 parts of SiO₂.

0.266	„	CaO	„	0.142	„	„
and 0.157	„	MgO	„	0.118	„	„

i.e., the bases present „ 1.508 parts of SiO₂.

There remains an excess of 0.477 part of SiO₂, which can be fluxed with 0.865 part of CaO, corresponding to 1.606 parts of CaCO₃. So that for every 21 tons of coke and 32 tons of ore a little over 1.6 tons of lime-stone will be necessary as flux.

(B) If we use Ramnagar coke the impurities in the charge will be :—

	In the ore.	In Ramnagar coke.	Total.
SiO ₂ . . .	0.672	2.033	2.705
Al ₂ O ₃ . . .	0.400	0.970	1.370
CaO . . .	0.048	0.125	0.173
MgO . . .	0.058	0.053	0.111

However 1.370 parts of Al₂O₃ require 1.196 parts of SiO₂.

0.173 part of CaO	requires	0.092 part of SiO ₂ .
and 0.111	„	MgO „ 0.083 „ „

i.e., the bases present require 1.371 parts of SiO₂.

There remains an excess of 1.334 parts of SiO₂, which require about 2.492 parts of CaO or roughly 4.643 parts of CaCO₃ or 4.543 tons of limestone as flux.

(C) With Giridih coke from Jubilee Pit, Karharbari Colliery, using ore to fuel in the same proportions of 32 to 21 the impurities in the charge will be :—

	In the ore.	In Giridih coke.	Total.
SiO ₂ . . .	0·672	1·024	1·696
Al ₂ O ₃ . . .	0·400	0·422	0·822
CaO . . .	0·048	0·023	0·071
MgO . . .	0·058	0·020	0·070

However, 0·822 part of Al₂O₃ requires 0·805 part of SiO₂.

0·071	„	CaO	„	0·036	„	„
and 0·070	„	MgO	„	0·052	„	„

i.e., the bases present require 0·893 „ SiO₂.

There remains an excess of 0·803 part of SiO₂; this is satisfied with 1·494 parts of CaO, or 2·774 parts of CaCO₃ or 2·774 tons of limestone as flux.

5.—Source of the Phosphorus.

It was Sir Thomas Holland¹ who first drew public attention to the highly phosphoric nature of the mica-peridotites of Giridih. This remarkable characteristic was found to be generally true of the coal-fields of the Damuda valley. In the case of two Giridih specimens collected underground he found 5·234 per cent. P₂O₅ (equivalent to 11·426 Ca₃P₂O₈) in the one and a slightly smaller (10·66 per cent Ca₃P₂O₈) in the other. He states in the first paper (p. 135) quoted above that “The decomposition of large quantities of this rock at the surface must contribute sensibly to the fertility of the neighbouring soil; but though the quantity of the lime phosphate would be considered large enough to warrant remark from the petrologist, it would not be sufficient to justify raising for economic purposes.” Under the microscope the presence of the mineral apatite indicates that it is in this substance that the phosphorus is chiefly located.

Quite recently the Agricultural Department of Bihar and Orissa have been conducting a soil survey of South Monghyr and East Gaya. They have found a tract, from Nawada westward for 20

¹ *Econ. Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXVII, pt. 4, 1894, p. 129; also XXVIII, pt. 4, 1895, p. 121, and XXX, pt. 3, 1897, p. 112.

miles, in which the phosphoric content is appreciably higher than in the lands to the eastward. In the west, in *rabi* lands, there is 0.094 per cent. P_2O_5 , of which only 0.017 per cent. is available, as against 0.031 per cent. P_2O_5 of which only 0.0029 per cent. is available in similar soils of the eastern areas. They say "This high phosphoric tract is watered by the rivers Tilaiya and Dhanarji which have their sources in the district of Hazaribagh in the neighbourhood of mica-bearing pegmatite rocks such as not infrequently contain apatite. In the Gaya district the Tilaiya also receives the drainage from the tourmaliniferous mica rocks near Banskap and Singar which are known to contain triplite, a phosphate fluoride of iron and manganese. The products of disintegration of these rock phosphates have presumably increased the amount of the soil phosphates in this region."

This is an interesting aspect of the case as the rocks mentioned by the Agricultural Department are far older than the coal-bearing strata of Giridih, whereas the mica-peridotite dykes are much younger. It is conceivable that there are other rich phosphate-rocks, *e.g.*, the apatite-rock of Dhalbhum, which lay within the drainage area of the great basins or valleys in which the Damuda coal seams accumulated. Thus there is the possibility that the plants of that geological period were enriched with phosphorus from the soils of that land region. The question which we have to answer is—Has the phosphorus in the coal entered as a constituent of the original plant material or is the phosphorus secondary, having been subsequently introduced by percolating waters?

According to M. Carnot (*Compt. Rend.*, Vol. 99, p. 154) spores and pollen-grains are the principal carriers of phosphorus contained in the coal and consequently in the resulting coke. As regards the phosphorus in the plant material the following extracts¹ are of considerable interest—"The cryptogams—that is to say, ferns, equisetums, and lycopods (lepidodendra and sigillaria)—along with some conifers (cordaites), constitute the bulk of the carboniferous flora, and these contain, as a group, a more or less considerable quantity of phosphorus. Carnot attempted to trace a connection between the quantity of phosphorus contained in coals and the nature of the plants of which they are composed. In the same deposit he could detect no appreciable differences, but those coals which contained

¹ 'Chemistry of Coke,' 1904, p. 117, W. Carrick Anderson.

a large number of spores, such as cannel coal, were found to contain the largest quantities of phosphorus. The amounts varied from .00572 to .06275 part of phosphorus in 100, while 0.02 part might be regarded as the mean."

"At the Denain Iron Works.....a comparison was made of various coals belonging to that locality with reference to the quantity of volatile constituents and of phosphorus they contained. Nothing definite, however was arrived at.....Generally speaking, the quantity of phosphorus is very variable."

There can be little doubt that some of the phosphorus in the Damuda valley and Giridih coals must be primary, i.e., a constituent of the original plants. However, the following observations made by Dr. E. Spencer¹ are convincing in regard to the presence of secondary phosphorus in the coal seams of Jharia :—

A. Analysis of spherulites in coal from the Nakari Nala, South Karanpura Coalfield.
B. Analysis of nodule of spherulitic material from Loyabad colliery, Jharia coalfield.

	A.	B.
SiO ₂	0.22	0.69
Al ₂ O ₃	0.39	0.82
Fe ₂ O ₃	6.82	2.86
FeO	48.70	46.62
MnO	0.05	0.06
CaO	1.95	4.80
MgO	1.60	1.80
P ₂ O ₅	0.28	2.85
CO ₂ (calculated)	32.92	31.60
Moisture	0.20	0.11
Insoluble in acid	6.31	6.35
	<hr/> 90.44	<hr/> 98.56

Dr. Spencer, speaking of the Loyabad material says "The dense interstitial coaly matter between the spherulites is broken up by numerous shrinkage cracks, which have developed subsequently to the growth of the spherulites. These cracks have been filled in with calcium phosphate, which mineral also occurs in the cracks and cavities of the outer zones of the spherulites." Speaking of analyses A and B he says of B "Except for the secondary calcium phosphate present in this material, the composition compares closely with that of the Karanpura spherulitic rock."

¹ See his paper "On Some Occurrences of Spherulitic Siderite and other Carbonates in Sediments," *Q. J. G. S.*, Vol. LXXXI, 324, pt. 4, 1925, pp. 667-704.

It is well known that apatite is partially soluble in such waters as would percolate through coal seams. Sir Thomas Holland says (*op. cit.* p. 135):—"It seems natural to expect that slow oxidation of the coal by oxygen dissolved in circulating underground waters would result in the production of carbonic acid and consequent formation of carbonates for decomposing silicates of iron, lime and magnesia."

If we can now show that the phosphorus content of mica-peridotite in a coal seam high in phosphorus and at some depth from the surface is apparently less than another specimen also below ground but associated with the same coal seam which is here lower in phosphorus, then the source of this element should be evident. Sir Thomas Holland's highly phosphatic peridotite (5.234 per cent. of P_2O_5) came from the shaft of the Jubilee Pit in Karharbari colliery, Giridih. An analysis of the coal from this area has been given and shows a very low phosphorus content.

Sir Thomas Holland did not include complete analyses of his specimens and, as I could not trace any such analyses in the Geological Survey Laboratory Book of that period, I presume the chemical investigations were made by Dr. P. Brühl. It is therefore fortunate that I procured from Dr. Brühl in 1912 the following analysis:

Analysis of Mica-Peridotite, Giridih Coalfield. By Dr. P. Brühl, at Sibpur.

Analysis on sample dried at 105°C.— H_2O 2.60 per cent. Rock obviously deeply altered, although hand specimen fairly fresh looking.

SiO_2	40.50
TiO_2	4.30
Al_2O_3	5.00 approx.
Fe_2O_3	7.00 "
FeO	6.30
MgO	11.80
CaO	9.00
K_2O	4.36 ; largely in hydro-biotite.
Na_2O	3.18
P_2O_5	1.81, as apatite.
V_2O_502
Cr_2O_3035
F20
Cl017
CO_2	3.70 ; partly in dolomite or calcite.
H_2O (above 105°)	2.70

99-923

In this analysis the P_2O_5 percentage is less than 2 ($Ca_3P_2O_8$ equivalent about 3.6) but the rock, in the slides examined by me, is decidedly not fresh, nor is the exact source of the specimen known. To obtain more suitable information I had the following analyses made :—

Analyses of Mica-peridotite Dykes.

	I P. C. R.	II P. C. R.	III S. K. C.	IV S. K. C.	V P. C. R.
SiO_2	44.26	27.78	44.21	36.53	31.81
TiO_2	6.73	3.48	2.24	1.80	3.98
Al_2O_3	12.09	7.33	9.11	14.08	10.88
Fe_2O_3	2.30	4.70	3.77	5.63	2.13
FeO	8.22	6.82	8.07	6.26	5.43
MgO	9.50	16.95	7.84	7.20	8.79
CaO	6.46	10.02	7.60	8.51	8.51
Na_2O	1.38	0.75	1.29	1.70	1.41
K_2O	1.12	3.77	4.73	1.18	3.53
H_2O (moist.)	5.00	1.06	3.01	5.70	0.13
H_2O (comb.)	0.89	1.39	0.38	1.05	0.29
CO_2	nil	11.91	4.99	6.14	18.41
P_2O_5	2.14	4.38	2.77	4.13	4.75
TOTAL	100.08	100.34	100.01	100.01	100.05
Sp. Gravity	2.533	3.01	2.72	2.60	2.863

P. C. R.—Mr. P. C. Roy, Assist. Curator, Geological Survey of India.

S. K. C.—Dr. S. K. Chatterjee, Assist. Supdt. Geological Survey of India.

I. Greatly altered mica-peridotite from workings of Central Pit, Serampur Colliery, Giridih Coalfield. †

II. Typical Mica-peridotite, Mugma area, Raniganj Coal-field.

III. Mica-peridotite from Bahira Colliery, near Kult, Raniganj Coal-field.

IV. Peridotite dyke with mica in Dishargarh seam, Dharma Nala, Raniganj Coal-field.

V. Peculiar apple green peridotite dyke in 14 seam Bhalgora colliery, Jharia Coal-field.

N.B.—All the analyses show traces to .17 per cent. (IV) MnO ; BaO is also present when looked for; sulphur was noted (0.24 per cent) in I. In none of the samples could any peridot (olivine) or recognisable augite be detected in microscope sections. Bronze mica is present abundantly in I, II and III, less so in IV and almost absent in V. Apatite is common in all, but is most conspicuous in II, IV and especially V. Serpentine is seen in almost all the slides. Its occurrence appears to be intimately related to areas in which olivine has decomposed and also to patches in which calcite (dolomite) is now present. Specimen I appears to have been severely leached of soluble constituents by percolating water. Specimen V effervesces with acid. In my opinion the bronze mica is a paramorphic mineral of an original peridotite, whereas the dykes and sills as now found are so altered that the term peridotite is misleading.

The phosphorus content of the analysis of I, from North Central Pit, agrees very well with that by Dr. Brühl and is lower than that from the Jubilee Pit. It has been shown that the phosphorus content of the coal seam in this neighbourhood is considerably higher than that of the same coal seam at the Jubilee Pit. We are presuming of course that the phosphorus content of the peridotites is fairly constant. Nevertheless the peridotite from North Central Pit although collected 500 feet below ground is greatly altered and has obviously been subject to the leaching action of percolating waters. I would draw attention to the fact that the workings, particularly the eastern and south-eastern workings, of Serampur colliery (see Plate 27) are subject to the percolation of considerable quantities of water which finds its way along the seam from its outcrop and the faults to the east and north-east.

It is not to be forgotten that the dolerite dykes may not be above suspicion in this connection, because it is quite certain that their physical effects in coking the coal are not the only effects they produce. In the vicinity of Rawanwara, Chhindwara District, Central Provinces, I found a deeply decomposed dolerite dyke in association with which in the adjoining shales there was a marked development of fluorspar. It appeared as though the fluorine had come from the igneous intrusion. Unfortunately I have not been able to complete an analysis of the olivine-dolerite dyke near the Deep Pit, Serampur colliery, Giridih, but the following analysis by H. S. Washington (*Bull. Geol. Soc. Amer.*, Vol. 33, 1922, p. 774) of doleritic basalt "I" of about the same age from the Rajmahal Hills (Ramchanderpur) shows a higher phosphorus content than similar material "II" from the Central Provinces (Bhourameta Hill, Chhindwara).

	I.	II.
SiO ₂	53.45	49.98
Al ₂ O ₃	15.24	12.51
Fe ₂ O ₃	1.26	2.83
FeO	8.20	11.71
MgO	5.83	5.42
CaO	9.32	10.00
Na ₂ O	3.03	2.65
K ₂ O	1.12	0.30
H ₂ O+	0.56	0.95
H ₂ O-	0.47	0.24
TiO ₂	0.50	2.27
P ₂ O ₅	0.78	0.37
MnO	0.13	0.23
Total	99.89	99.55

To appreciate to the full the exceptional character of the dolerite and mica-peridotite igneous rocks of Bengal and Bihar, as regards their phosphorus content, it may be stated that the mineral apatite, which is the chief phosphorus-carrying mineral of rocks, is most common in the gneisses and such like metamorphic rocks; that it is more common in granites and acid igneous rocks than in basalts and dolerites; and that it is generally considered to be a relatively *rare constituent* in peridotites. In their paper "The Composition of the Earth's Crust"¹ Drs. F. W. Clark and H. S. Washington calculate the phosphorus percentage (given as P_2O_5) in the average composition of igneous rocks as 0.14. From these data it would appear that the Coal-Measure strata of the Damuda valley and adjacent coalfields not only lie in a tract containing rocks rather higher in phosphorus than the normal, but are also intruded by dykes of igneous rock of exceptionally high phosphorus content. It is therefore not remarkable that the coal seams contain somewhat higher amounts of phosphorus than is considered normal elsewhere, and it must be assumed that to find coal with a low phosphorus content in the Damuda valley coal-fields will be quite exceptional. If this deduction is quite logical, as it appears to be, the arguments in favour of conserving the low phosphorus coal in Karharbari Colliery are unanswerable.

I am very grateful to numerous friends for their kind assistance in constructing this paper. Mr. C. S. Whitworth has supplied a number of valuable analyses; Dr. E. Spencer has also provided me with several analyses of coal and other data; Mr. F. G. Percival has been generous enough to secure the analyses of the coal used at the Agricultural Implements Co.'s works. The analyses of the Indian mica-peridotites were carried out in the Geological Survey Laboratory by Dr. S. K. Chatterjee and Mr. P. C. Roy, to whom I am greatly obliged. It is, however, not too much to say that, without the detailed analyses made for me by Mr. A. Dawes Robinson and the very liberal help given by Mr. H. Lancaster, this paper could not have been prepared.

¹ Prof. Paper No. 127, 1924, Dept. of the Interior, U. S. Geol. Surv.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE GAULT IN INDIA. BY G. de P.
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THE recent discovery by Major L. M. Davies of a Gault fauna in the Samana range in the tribal territory west of Kohat has led me to review our knowledge of the Gault in India.¹

That a Gault fauna existed in the Samana range has long been suspected. In 1891, during the Miranzai expedition under General Lockhart, a number of fossils believed to be of Cenomanian or Gault age were sent to the Geological Survey Office by Major Mainwaring.² They are mentioned by Middlemiss in his memoir on Hazara, in which he expresses the opinion that the Samana fauna is of similar age to a fauna which he himself had collected from the Giumal Sandstone of Hazara, and he regarded both as of Cenomanian age. He notes however that Waagen and Wynne had favoured a Gault age for the fossiliferous beds of this horizon in Hazara.³ C. L. Griesbach accompanied the Miranzai expedition for geological investigation. His notes on the range are, however, very fragmentary⁴ and little was added to our knowledge of the Cretaceous of that area. Subsequently Sir H. H. Hayden was deputed to accompany the Tirah Expeditionary Force in 1897, and collected brachiopoda and belemnites which were referred to the Cenomanian by Nöetling.⁵

Up till 1917 the age of the Hazara and allied faunas was believed to be Cenomanian, in accordance, with the view of C. S. Middlemiss. But during the years 1915 to 1917, with the assistance of Mr. Bankim Behari Gupta, now Sub-Assistant, Geological Survey of India, I was engaged in overhauling the collections of Indian fossils in the fossil gallery of the Indian Museum. During the re-examination of our collections, it became necessary to check the identification of many species, both in cases where the identification appeared incorrect or where the original generic or specific name had been changed. Several changes of a more important kind were made;

¹ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, LIX, p. 15.

² *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXVI, p. 38.

³ See Waagen and Wynne; *Geology of Mt. Sirban*; *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, IX, p. 342.

⁴ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXV, p. 80.

⁵ *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXVIII, p. 104.

thus the subdivisions and stages of the Gondwana system were revised; the marine Permian was exhibited separately from the Carboniferous. Amongst the changes introduced was the transfer from the Cenomanian to the Gault of C. S. Middlemiss' collections from the Giumal Sandstone of Hazara. An intensive study of the fauna by Mr. Gupta and myself showed that the fauna was most closely related to the lower Gault of Europe. Amongst the species provisionally identified and exhibited in the Museum show-case in 1917 were:—

Douvilleiceras mammillatum (Schlotheim), *Acanthoceras lyelli* Leyn, *Pholadomya genevensis* Pict. & Roux, *Terebratula obesa* Sow., *Turbo gresslyanus* Pict. & Roux, and *Solarium moniliferum* Mich. All the above came from a single locality, the village of Jabrian on the Haro River (Survey sheet 43 $\frac{6}{1}$: lat. $33^{\circ} 47'$; long. $73^{\circ} 14'$). The section is described on page 200 of C. S. Middlemiss' memoir.¹

In addition to these from Jabrian other specimens collected by Middlemiss were identified and exhibited as follows:—*Mortonicerias inflatum* Sow., *Hamites attenuatus* Sow., from a village named Wijjian (lat. $33^{\circ} 47'$; long. $72^{\circ} 49'$), *Mortonicerias inflatum* Sow. from Dhantaur (lat. $34^{\circ} 7' 30''$; long. $73^{\circ} 16'$), *Terebratula biplicata* Brocchi, from Janomar Hill (lat. $33^{\circ} 47'$; long. $73^{\circ} 0' 30''$).

When writing this paper, I again checked these identifications, and find it necessary to make some changes. I sub-join some notes on the fauna, with such revisions as I have adopted.

Douvilleiceras mammillatum (Schl.):—

There appears to be no doubt in regard to the identification of this species. The number of ribs on the last whorl of the Hazara specimens varies from 18 to 30. D'Orbigny (*Palæontologie Française*) states that the number of ribs varies from 16 to 30. Pictet, in his description of the Swiss Albian fauna,² mentions that the ribs on his specimens vary from 16 to 25. Four out of six of our specimens have ribs of numbers between 26 and 30 on the last whorl, and therefore it is to be remarked that the variety with more numerous ribs appears to be more characteristic of the Jabrian locality. The fossils are casts, and the spines are not preserved.

¹ Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind., XXVI.

² F. J. Pictet and W. Roux: Description des Mollusques fossiles des grès verts des environs de Genève: Mem. Soc. phys. et hist. nat. Gen., XI, p. 257; XII, p. 157; XIII, p. 389.

Acanthoceras lyelli Leym. :—

There are seven well-preserved casts, all from Jabrian. The fossils agree exactly with the type figures.

Pholadomya genevensis Pict. and Roux :—

The Indian species is apparently very closely related to Pictet and Roux's type. I am not, however, certain whether it is to be regarded as identical, and consider it safer to describe it as *P. sp.*, cf. *genevensis*. In *P. genevensis* the postero-dorsal profile is slightly convex; in the Indian species it is flat or very slightly concave in this region.

Terebratulula obesa Sow. :—

The species may be compared to Stoliczka's figures in Plate V, figures 5a, 5b, and 5c of his "Cretaceous Fauna of Southern India", Vol. IV. I doubt, however, whether the species can be separated from *T. biplicata*, var. *dutempleana* D'Orb. The figures 1-9 in Plate VI of Davidson's "British Fossil Brachiopoda" appear to agree. I prefer to call the Indian species *T. dutempleana* D'Orb.

Turbo gresslyanus Pict. and Roux :—

The specimens are merely casts and cannot be identified with certainty. They may be described as *T. sp.* cf. *gresslyanus*.

Solarium moniliferum Mich. :—

Although the specimens are generally casts, traces of the ornamentation are preserved. The identification appears correct.

Mortoniceras inflatum Sow. :—

Two specimens were referred to this species, one from Wijjian, and the other from Dhantaur. The specimen from Dhantaur is a large ammonite, 15 cms. in diameter. The identification appears correct, but the name *Mortoniceras* should now be changed to *Inflatoceras*.¹ The specimen from Wijjian is an *Inflatoceras*, but I think it possible that it is a different species from *I. inflatum*. Only a small portion of the outer whorl is preserved; this shows irregularly bifurcating ribs without tubercles. The fragmentary condition renders precise identification impossible, but a comparison may be made with *Inflatoceras inflatum* Sow.

The Jabrian fauna with *Douvilleiceras mammillatum* and *Acanthoceras lyelli* must be regarded as lower Gault in age and appears

¹ C. Stieler: Ueber sogenannte Mortoniceratenarten in des Gault: *Centralblatt für Min.*, (1920), p. 392.

to be precisely the equivalent of Major Davies' Samana beds. The Wijjian ammonites are, however, more suggestive of the Vraconnian (upper Gault to basal Cenomanian). The same may be said of the Dhantaur ammonite. The single brachiopod from Janomar Hill does not help us to fix any precise age, but it agrees very well with the general age of the Hazara Cretaceous.

North-west of Rawalpindi, Wynne obtained from the Giumal Sandstone two *Trigonias*, viz. *T. ventricosa* and *T. costata*.¹ *T. ventricosa* is a Neocomian form from the Umia beds of Kachh. As regards *T. costata*, this, I think, merely means that the *Trigonias* in question belongs to the section *Costatae*. If so, it does not give any precise definition of age. In Kachh the section *Costatae* ranges from the Putchum to the Umia groups.

In the Attock district, Mr. Lahiri found a *Perisphinctes* in the Giumal Sandstones, which, although not too well preserved, appears to be very close to, if not identical with, *P. bleicheri* de Lorient, a species from the Umia beds of Kachh, age basal Cretaceous.²

The last occurrence coupled with the *Trigonias* noted above would seem to show that the Giumal Sandstone ranges down to the lower Cretaceous, while the ammonites of Hazara indicate that horizons as high as lower Cenomanian may be expected.

Sir H. H. Hayden's Cretaceous fossils from Tirah are rather too fragmentary for identification. Amongst them are specimens of a *Rhynchonella* very close to *R. mutua* Stol. and of *Terebratula dutempleana* from the Waran valley; several belemnite fragments, a *Terebratula*, probably *T. dutempleana*, and some ammonite fragments from the road leading from the Arhanga Pass into Maidan; and several very poorly preserved fragments of a *Perisphinctes*-like ammonite from other localities.

The Giumal Sandstone of the Himalaya has been studied by A. Spitz, whose paper in the Records of the Geological Survey of India³ shows that the fauna ranges from Neocomian to Cenomanian. One species—*Parahoplites* sp.—has its nearest relatives in the lower Gault and Aptian; another, *Stoliczkaya dispar*, indicates a Vraconnian horizon.

In the peninsula of India, in the state of Gwalior, the Bagh beds contain a fauna which has been studied by E. Vredenburg

¹ See Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind., XL, p. 384 and references.

² See Pal. Ind., Ser. IX, Vol. I, p. 194, Plate LV, fig. 4.

³ Vol. XLIV, p. 197 et seq.

and R. Fourteau.¹ From the researches of the latter it appears that the Bagh Bed fauna is to be regarded as upper Gault or Vraconnian in age, and therefore to be correlated with the *Inflaticeras inflatum* horizon of Hazara.

Inflaticeras inflatum is also reported from Sandoway district on the Arakan coast, from the Cretaceous rocks of that area.² There is also the rather doubtful occurrence of a species of *Placenticerus* from Ramri Island,³ which would indicate a Cenomanian horizon.

The Cretaceous of Southern India commences with the Cenomanian and ranges to the Danian, with a rich fauna. On the other hand, in Baluchistan the middle Cretaceous is entirely absent.⁴

In the Salt Range E. Koken⁵ showed that the Cenomanian was missing, and that the lower Cretaceous marls and white sandstone were overlain by the Danian *Cardita beaumonti* beds.

In Sind the lower Cretaceous and Danian are developed, but the Cenomanian is missing.⁶

In Kachh the lower Cretaceous (Umia beds) is developed but the rest of the Cretaceous is missing.

Reviewing these facts, it is remarkable that while the Cenomanian is richly developed in the *continental* area of Southern India, it is missing from the *geosynclinal* areas of Kachh, Sind, Baluchistan, and the Punjab. This is an example which supports E. Haug's dictum in his *Traité de Géologie* (vol. I, p. 505). "Toutes les fois qu'un terme déterminé de la série sédimentaire est transgressif sur les aires continentales, le même terme est en régression dans les géosynclinaux." If it is true that the marine transgression of the Cenomanian was accompanied by oscillations in an inverse sense in the geosynclinal part of India, it appears that the Gault, being an age of transition, when these counterbalancing movements were commencing, is very poorly developed both in the "continental" and "geosynclinal" areas of India.

¹ E. Vredenburg: The Ammonites of the Bagh Beds: *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXXVI, p. 109. R. Fourteau: Les Echinides des "Bagh Beds"; *id.* XLIX, p. 34.

² *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, X, p. 311.

³ *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXI, p. 48 footnote.

⁴ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXXVIII, p. 189.

⁵ *Centralblatt*, IV, 439.

⁶ See section facing p. 88, *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XVII.

THE AGE OF THE SO-CALLED DANIAN FAUNA FROM TIBET.

BY G. DE P. COTTER, B.A., SC.D., M.INST.M.M.,
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India.*¹

IN reviewing the memoir of Prof. H. Douvillé upon the Cretaceous and Eocene of Tibet (*Pal. Ind.*, New Ser., Vol. V, Mem. No. 3) M. Dolfus remarked (*Revue Critique de Paléozoologie*, XXIV, p. 66) "Il y a peu de formes admises comme provenant réellement de l'Eocène . . . évidemment nous sommes ici dans le Lutécien et, comme la sédimentation est concordante et continue avec les couches attribuées au Danien, il y a là une question embarrassante relativement à l'Eocène inférieur, à moins que ces couches daniennes ne soient en réalité éocéniques comme leurs Genres de Mollusques le donne à croire. Il y a là un désaccord entre les Mollusques et les grands Foraminifères qui appelle de nouvelles études et une vérification soigneuse."

M. Dolfus here suggests the possibility that the so-called Danian of Tibet may really be Eocene, as the molluscan fauna suggests. The same views were held independently by the late Mr. E. Vredenburg, who has left some scattered notes upon the subject, in which he attempts to show that the molluscan fauna of the so-called Danian is really an upper Ranikot to Laki fauna, and that the *Cardita beaumonti* horizon and lower Ranikot stage are entirely missing. I shall briefly recapitulate the main features of the geological section.

The geology of south-east Tibet was described by Sir H. H. Hayden in the *Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India*, Volume XXXVI, part 2. Prof. Douvillé gives a list of the various horizons, compiled from sections given on pages 44 and 51 of Sir H. H. Hayden's memoir. These are numbered 6 to 16, as follows :—

- 16 Shales and sandstones (Dzongbuk shales).
- 15 Orbitolites Limestone with *Alveolina*.
- 14 Calcareous Shales with *Spondylus*.

¹ Written partly from notes left by the late E. Vredenburg, Superintendent, Geological Survey of India.

- 13 Operculina Limestone.
- 12 Gastropod Limestone.
- 11 Ferruginous Sandstone.
- 10 Grey Limestone with Brachiopods.
- 9 { Lithothamnion Limestone.
- { Red sandy Limestone.
- { Grey Limestone.
8. Brown Limestone with *Omphalocyclus*.
- 7 Thin-bedded Limestone with *Vola quadricostata*.
- 6 Massive Limestone.
- 6 Calcareous Shales.

Mr. Vredenburg suggested in 1908 (*Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXXVI, p. 189) that the Ferruginous Sandstone (No. 11 of the above table) represented the *Cardita beaumonti* horizon, and that, if the section at all resembled those of Sind and North West India, there was no difficulty in supposing that the lower Eocene, which is of extremely rare occurrence as a fossiliferous deposit in India, might be missing, and that the beds above No. 11 might belong to the widespread middle Eocene.

Prof. Douvillé, however, in the work quoted in the first paragraph of this paper, ascribes beds Nos. 12 to 14 to the Danian, as well as bed No. 11, the age of which is not determinable owing to the absence of fossils, but which, it may be admitted, may possibly be actually Danian and the equivalent of the *Cardita beaumonti* horizon¹. The age of beds 13 to 14 is, however, in dispute, and I shall try to show that they are in reality upper Ranikot to Laki in age. The following table shows the fauna of these beds as determined by Prof. Douvillé :—

Name of fossil.	Bed 12.	Bed 13.	Bed 14.
<i>Nautilus pseudo-bouchardi</i> Spondler	*	*	also in bed 9.
<i>Nautilus cf. rota</i> Stoliczka		*	
<i>Gisortia depressa</i> Sowerby	*		
<i>Ovula cf. ellipsoidea</i> D'Archiac and Haime	*		
<i>Terebellum distortum</i> D'A. and H. . . .	*		
<i>Gosavia salesnois</i> (D'A. and H.)	*		
<i>Lyria</i> sp.		*	
<i>Chenopus tibeticus</i> Douvillé, n. sp. . . .	*		

¹ It might equally well be of Ranikot age.

Name of fossil.	Bed 12.	Bed 13.	Bed 14.
<i>Chenopus (Hippocrene) columbarius</i> D'A. and H.	*		
<i>Drepanochilus fusoides</i> D'Archiac . . .			*
<i>Campanile</i> cf. <i>breve</i> Douvillé . . .	*	*	
<i>Campanile brevius</i> Douvillé n. sp. . .		*	
<i>Natica</i> cf. <i>flemingi</i> D'A. and H. . .		*	
<i>Velates tibeticus</i> Douvillé n. sp. . .		*	
<i>Venericardia</i> sp.	*		
<i>Corbis</i> cf. <i>lamellosa</i> Lamk		*	
<i>Lima squamifera</i> Goldfuss		*	
<i>Chama</i> cf. <i>distans</i> Desh			*
<i>Spondylus roualti</i> D'Archiac			*
<i>Delheidia haydeni</i> Douvillé n. sp. . .	*		
<i>Lepidorbiloides tibetica</i> Douvillé n. sp. . .		*	
<i>Lepidorbiloides polygonalis</i> Douvillé n. sp. .		*	*
<i>Operculina canalifera</i> D'Archiac		*	*
<i>Operculina hardei</i> D'A. and H.		*	
<i>Siderolites miscella</i> D'Archiac		*	*

I propose to consider each of these species, with the help of Mr. Vredenburg's notes.

Nautilus pseudobouchardi.—Prof. Douvillé notes the similarity of the Tibetan form to *N. labechei* D'A. and H., from the Laki of Sind. He states that it differs in that the whorls are less high and more flattened above. Mr. Vredenburg remarks: "It is by no means certain that this species differs from *N. labechei*; the Tibet specimen has reached a more advanced stage of growth than D'Archiac and Haime's type, and it is a common thing for *Nautili* of this group to acquire taller whorls with increasing age."

Nautilus cf. *rota*.—Mr. Vredenburg remarks: "This form does not resemble any fossil from the Danian of Sind. It is closely related to *Nautilus forbesi* D'A. and H., the commonest species of the Laki, but it has much more crowded septa."

Gisortia depressa.—Mr. Vredenburg in his posthumous memoir on the genus *Gisortia* (*Pal. Ind., New Ser., Vol. VII, part 3*) expresses the opinion that these specimens from Tibet must be referred to *Gisortia tuberculosa* Duclos, which is an upper Ranikot fossil in Sind. He notes also that the Tibetan fauna which I am now discussing is middle Eocene and not Danian. At the time of writing this paper Mr. Vredenburg's work on *Gisortia* is still in the Press.

Ovula cf. *ellipsoides*.—This is only a cast, very much resembling certain casts from the Laki of Sind. In Mr. Vredenburg's "Supple-

ment to Cossmann and Pissarro's memoir on the Mollusca of the Ranikot Series," now in the Press, it is stated that D'Archiac's species is founded upon a damaged and distorted specimen.

Terebellum distortum.—This is a very common fossil, according to Mr. Vredenburg, both in the Ranikot and in the Laki.

Gosavia salsensis.—D'Archiac and Haime's species *Voluta salsensis* is referred by Mr. Vredenburg (*Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, LIV, p. 267) to the genus *Aulica* rather than to *Gosavia*. It is from the middle Eocene of the Salt Range.

Lyria sp. is too incomplete for determination, but according to Mr. Vredenburg "resembles many tertiary forms both in India and Europe."

Chenopus tibeticus is a common Laki fossil in Sind. There is a premutation in the Ranikot described by Cossmann and Pissarro i.e., *Chenopus dimorphospira*. In Mr. Vredenburg's Supplement, above alluded to (not yet published) there is a comparison and diagnosis of both the Laki and the Ranikot form.

Chenopus columbarius.—The Indian species referred by D'Archiac and Haime to *Rostellaria columbaria* Lamk. is a characteristic Laki fossil.

Drepanochilus fusoides.—Mr. Vredenburg remarks: "The fossil referred by Prof. Douvillé to *Drepanochilus fusoides* differs from D'Archiac's type from the Ranikot, but corresponds with an undescribed species, very abundant in the Laki."

Campanile cf. *breve* and *C. brevius*.—Mr. Vredenburg states: "I have not noticed in the Laki any *Cerithioids* so broadly conical as *Campanile* cf. *breve* and *C. brevius* from Tibet, but similar forms occur in the Ranikot."

Natica flemingi.—Mr. Vredenburg states this to be a Laki fossil from the Salt Range.

Velates tibeticus.—This form has been already discussed by Mr. Vredenburg in his Supplement to the Ranikot Mollusca (in the press). It corresponds, in his opinion, with *V. affinis* D'Archiac and Haime, and characterises both the Ranikot and the lower zones of the Laki.

Venericardia sp., *Lima squamifera*, and *Chama* cf. *distans* are all poorly preserved specimens and are, Mr. Vredenburg thinks, "too incomplete to take into account."

Spondylus roualti.—This is a characteristic Laki form.

From the above it is clear that the mollusca indicate in the clearest manner possible the Eocene and probable upper Ranikot to Laki age of these Tibetan beds. The foraminifera, which M. Dolfus thought were in disagreement with the mollusca over the question of age, may now be examined. Yet I doubt if M. Dolfus would to-day express the same opinion as to the Cretaceous aspect of the foraminifera, since recent work has partly modified our views on the subject.

Omitting the species referred to *Delheidia* and the *Hydrozoa*, but which some have thought to be one of the foraminifera, there are two species of *Lepidorbitoides*, two of *Operculina*, and one of *Siderolites*.

Operculina canalifera is a Sind form which, according to Mr. Vredenburg, characterises the highest zone of the Ranikot. It occurs also in Burma in the Yaw stage (upper Eocene).¹

Operculina hardei is a Sind form associated with *Nummulites garansensis* according to D'Archiac and Haime. Mr. Vredenburg notes that under this name two forms appear to have been described, one an Oligocene *Operculina* found in company with *N. garansensis*,² and another form which possibly is specifically distinct, and which occurs in the Ranikot.

Siderolites miscella, originally described by D'Archiac and Haime as *Nummulites miscella* is associated with Eocene fossils in Sind, and it has been explained in Mr. Vredenburg's Supplement (in the Press), that, with the exception of *Cardita beaumonti* itself, all D'Archiac and Haime's types appear to be Eocene or later. Mr. Vredenburg (*Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XXXIV, p. 86), originally regarded the species as an *Assilina* and states that it characterises the two upper zones of the Ranikot series. Nuttall (*Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, LIX, p. 125), also places *Siderolites miscella* in the upper Ranikot. The two species of *Lepidorbitoides* are new and the genus has hitherto not been found in India.

Omitting for the moment such evidence as the occurrence of *Lepidorbitoides* may give, it appears that we cannot only say that we are dealing with an Eocene horizon, but can to some extent correlate the Tibetan beds with those of Sind.

¹ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, XLI, p. 238.

² *N. garansensis*, closely allied to *N. Achteli*, is the megaspheric form of *N. intermedia*. See *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, LIX, p. 125.

Prof. Douvillé mentions two characteristic Laki fossils from the admittedly Eocene beds, (No. 15), immediately above the beds of disputed age. They are *Vulsella legumen* and *Ostrœa flemingi*.¹ With these two molluscs is found *Alveolina oblonga*, which is found in Sind in association with *Nummulites planulatus* in the upper Ranikot.

It would appear therefore that the bed numbered 15—*Orbitolites* limestone with *Alveolina*—is not to be regarded as separable by any stratigraphical gap from the beds 12 to 14 immediately below. We appear to be dealing with a Laki horizon in the case of bed 15. *Spondylus roualti*, which characterises bed 14, is a typical Laki species according to Mr. Vredenburg. *Velates affinis* ranges from the upper Ranikot to the lower Laki (Meting Shales). Other species mentioned above are, as will be seen, more characteristic of the Ranikot, but there is a distinct Laki element in the fauna. *Chenopus tibeticus* has a premutation in the Ranikot, viz., *Ch. dimorphospira* C. and P. It appears probable, on reviewing the whole evidence, that the nearest equivalents in Sind would be zone 4 of the Ranikot and the lower division of the Laki or the Meting Shales.

It remains to discuss the question of the presence of *Lepidorbitoides*. At the time that Prof. Douvillé wrote the memoir on the Cretaceous and Eocene of Tibet, I believe the current views were that *Orbitoides* (s. str.) and *Lepidorbitoides* (type *O. socialis*) were strictly Cretaceous, that *Orthophragmina* was strictly an Eocene genus, and that *Lepidocyclina* was Oligocene and Miocene.

In 1917 M. Douvillé published an account of the Stampian fauna of Trinidad,² in which he notes the presence in association of *Orthophragmina stellata* and *Lepidocyclina* (*Isolepidina*) *pustulosa*.

Cushman,³ in a paper published in 1920, expresses the view that *Lepidocyclina* occurs with *Orthophragmina* in the Eocene in America, and that *Orthophragmina* is not found in Oligocene beds, which contain *Lepidocyclina* alone.

The occurrence of *Lepidocyclina* in the upper Eocene seems now to be an established fact.

¹ For the age of *O. flemingi* see Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind., XLVII, p. 197. Mr. Vredenburg, in his unpublished notes, says that *Vulsella legumen* D'A. and H. is a Laki species, and replaces a Ranikot *Vulsella* which he has referred to *V. crispata* Fischer.

² *Comptes-Rendus Acad. Sci.*, Vol. 164, p. 841.

³ The American species of *Orthophragmina* and *Lepidocyclina*; U. S. Geol. Survey, Prof. Paper 125-D.

It is probable that *Lepidocyclina* sprang from some such ancestral type as *Orbitoides* (*Lepidorbitoides*) *socialis* from the Maestrichtian, in which the equatorial chambers tend to become hexagonal. It is not difficult to suppose therefore that there may have existed in the middle Eocene some intermediate types linking *Lepidocyclina* with *Lepidorbitoides*. The two Tibetan species appear to fit into their proper places as middle Eocene species in the evolutionary tree.

There has been of late years some discussion as to whether *Orbitoides* (s. str.) passes up to the Eocene.¹ Checchia-Rispoli, who has for years resisted the view that *Orbitoides* (s. str.) is Cretaceous only, *Orthophragmina* Eocene only, and *Lepidocyclina* post-Eocene only, has recently written a somewhat controversial note,² maintaining his original view that all three genera can co-exist in the Eocene. He quotes with triumph Prof. Douville's admission that his original conclusion was "un peu trop absolue et à laquelle il a été nécessaire d'apporter des tempéraments."

A curious mixture of *Orbitoides*, *Lepidorbitoides*, and *Orthophragmina* is found in Cahetia, and is described by A. Riabinin;³ in this paper it is suggested that there is a mechanical mixture of Cretaceous with Eocene types. Apparently A. Silvestri has suggested a similar mixture to explain several such occurrences in Italy. In India, it is quite common to find derived nummulites in the Murree Beds and in the Siwaliks; these nummulites have been deposited in the Siwaliks and Murrees as fossils from the Eocene Nummulitic Shales which immediately underlie them. Fossil nummulites are easily transported by water, just as pebbles are transported, and become incorporated in rocks of later age.

There is no reason for regarding the Tibetan species of *Lepidorbitoides* as derived forms; on the other hand, it is by no means certain that *Lepidorbitoides* is as a genus strictly confined to the Cretaceous. The evidence of the Laki age of the so-called Danian of Tibet appears to be overwhelming, and there appears to be no course open but to register the Tibetan *Lepidorbitoides* as probable Eocene survivors of the genus, keeping in view the alternative

¹ There is a paper by A. Silvestri on this subject, not available in Calcutta, entitled "Orbitoidi cretacei nell' Eocene della Brianga"; *Mem., Pont. Acc. N. Lincei*, 1919, pp. 31-107.

² *Boll. del R. Comit. Geol. d'Italia*, Vol. XVIII, N. 7.

³ *Bull. Com. Geol. St. Petersburg*, XXX, p. 669.

possibility that the foraminifera may partly be derived from older rocks.

One argument that might be adduced in favour of a Cretaceous age is the curious absence of nummulites. Nummulites are absent from both the so-called Danian and the admittedly Eocene beds from the base of the Gastropod Limestone to the top of the Dzongbuk Shales. This curious feature is commented upon by Sir H. H. Hayden (*op. cit.*, p. 56); nevertheless he regarded the whole series, from bed 11—Ferruginous Sandstone, to the top of bed 16—Dzongbuk Shales—as Eocene. The absence of nummulites is however a feature which may be paralleled in other areas, and Mr. Vredenburg in his unpublished notes states that he has seen similar Eocene beds without nummulites in Baluchistan.

The main evidence then of a Cretaceous age is the presence of *Lepidorbitoides*, but the two species referred to this genus are new and are not found in the Cretaceous in any other area; moreover, in view of the undoubted presence of *Lepidocyclina* in the upper Eocene and the probability that it is descended from some such ancestral form as *Orbitoides socialis*, there seems no difficulty at all in accepting these forms as Eocene. *Lepidorbitoides tibeticus* has very small equatorial cells which tend to be hexagonal, in fact it seems to be an annectant type on the road to becoming a *Lepidocyclina*, while *Lepidorbitoides polygonalis* has equatorial cells which recall the structure of *Orthophragmina*. In fact these two Tibetan species present some rather exceptional characteristics, which may well be due to the fact that they are rare Eocene forms. It remains to discuss the problematical *Delheidia haydeni*. M. Dolfus¹ argues that the species is not a *Delheidia*, and without placing the species definitely either in the Hydrozoa or the Foraminifera, proposes a new generic name, *Robertella*, after Prof. Douvillé's lamented son who was killed in the war. A. Silvestri² identifies the Tibetan species with *Bradya tergestina*, a Danian species from Istria and Dalmatia described by Stache.³ Stache regarded this species as belonging to the foraminifera, but Silvestri refers it to the hydrozoa. He thinks that the species *Keramosphæra murrayi* Brady,⁴ is to

¹ *Revue Critique de Paléozoologie*, 1917, p. 39.

² *Rivista Ital. di Paleontologia*, Vol. XXX, pp. 17-26.

³ *Abhandl. d. k. k. geol. Reichsanst.*, Vol. XIII, Pl. VI, figs. 24 to 28.

⁴ *Ann. d. Mag. Nat. Hist.*, ser. 5, Vol. X, p. 242, and *Report of Chall. Exp.*, Vol. IX, p. 224.

be referred to the same genus. If the genus is still living, its presence in the Tibetan so-called Danian cannot be regarded as evidence of a Danian age, notwithstanding that it is found in the Danian of Istria and Dalmatia. It is a problematical fossil, and its relationships are not yet certain.

Reviewing the whole of the evidence, it appears that the mollusca give us overwhelming evidence in favour of an Upper Ranikot to Laki age, while the evidence of the foraminifera need not necessarily be regarded as in disagreement.

BAUXITE ON KORLAPAT HILL, KALAHANDI STATE, BIHAR
AND ORISSA. BY M. S. KRISHNAN, M.A., PH.D.(Lond.),
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THE occurrence of laterite in Kalahandi State has been known for a comparatively long time. As early as 1877, V. Ball¹ observed

Introduction.

laterite on the Baplaimalai hill in the south-eastern part of the State. Later, T. L. Walker, in his memoir on the geology of the Kalahandi State², mentions that laterite is of common occurrence on the hills made up of garnet-sillimanite gneisses. Quite recently, C. S. Fox has summarised the available information on the Kalahandi laterites in his valuable memoir on "The Bauxite and Aluminous Laterite occurrences of India³."

Among Walker's specimens, is a pisolitic "mottled laterite" (reg. no. 15/215) reported to have been collected from the Korlapat hill, but whose exact locality is not known. An analysis of this specimen by H. Warth has been quoted by Sir T. H. Hoiland⁴ in his paper on bauxite in India, since this specimen is a bauxite containing as much as 67 per cent. of alumina.

In April 1926, the writer was deputed to examine the Korlapat hill with regard to the occurrence of bauxite, and the results of the investigation form the subject of this note.

The village of Korlapat (lat. 19° 41' ; long. 83° 9' 30") is about

Communications.

twenty miles south of Bhawanipatna, the capital of the Kalahandi State. At the present time, the best route to Bhawanipatna is by a motor road 140 miles long, from Sambalpar, through Sonpur and Patna States. It can also be reached from Parvatipuram on the Vizagapatam side, by a route which follows the Nagavalli River valley for the greater part of its length. The Raipur-Vizagapatam

¹ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. X (1877), pp. 169-71.

² *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XXXIII, Pt. 3 (1902).

³ *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XLIX, Pt. 1 (1923), pp. 183-84.

⁴ *Rec., Geol. Surv. Ind.*, Vol. XXXII, Pt. 2 (1906), p. 179, Analysis I.

Railway, now under construction, will pass through Bhawanipatna when completed, and will then make the region easily accessible.

The Korlapat hill extends from the village of the same name

Korlapat hill.

for about 8 miles in a southward direction, and forms part of the Eastern Ghat system. It is flat-topped and attains an average height of 3,800 feet. The highest point on the hill is "Korlapat S." (3,981 ft.) situated near the southern end. At its base the hill measures about a mile across. Its flanks are steep and clothed in thick vegetation; the top, which consists of a capping of laterite, is sparsely wooded, owing to the thinness of the soil-cover (about a foot on an average) and the general absence of joints and cracks where trees could take root. Numerous tiny springs issue forth from beneath the laterite cap, but on the cap itself there is scarcely any sign of water. These springs collect together at the base to form perennial streams.

The valleys at the foot of the hill are underlain by charnockites,

Geology.

which range from acid to basic in composition (reg. nos. 35/46, 35/28, 35/29), while garnetiferous varieties are not uncommon. The hill itself is composed of quartz-garnet-sillimanite-graphite schist, to which Walker has given the name "khondalite"¹ (reg. no. 35/30). All these rocks have a strike which varies from N.-S. to N.N.E.-S.S.W., the latter direction being the more common. The hill-slopes are made up of kaolinised khondalite, excepting a thickness of 60-150 feet at the top, which is all laterite. The kaolinised khondalite (reg. nos. 35/31, 35/32, 35/35, 35/37, 35/41) is a soft friable rock mottled with patches of red and brown, which represent weathered garnet. The laterite is red and ferruginous (reg. nos. 35/38, 35/39) for a depth of some ten feet at the very top, while below it comes a more aluminous and lighter coloured variety. Often, instead of the aluminous laterite, we observe a continuation of the same material as at the top, or a siliceous modification of it (reg. no. 35/40) extending downwards.

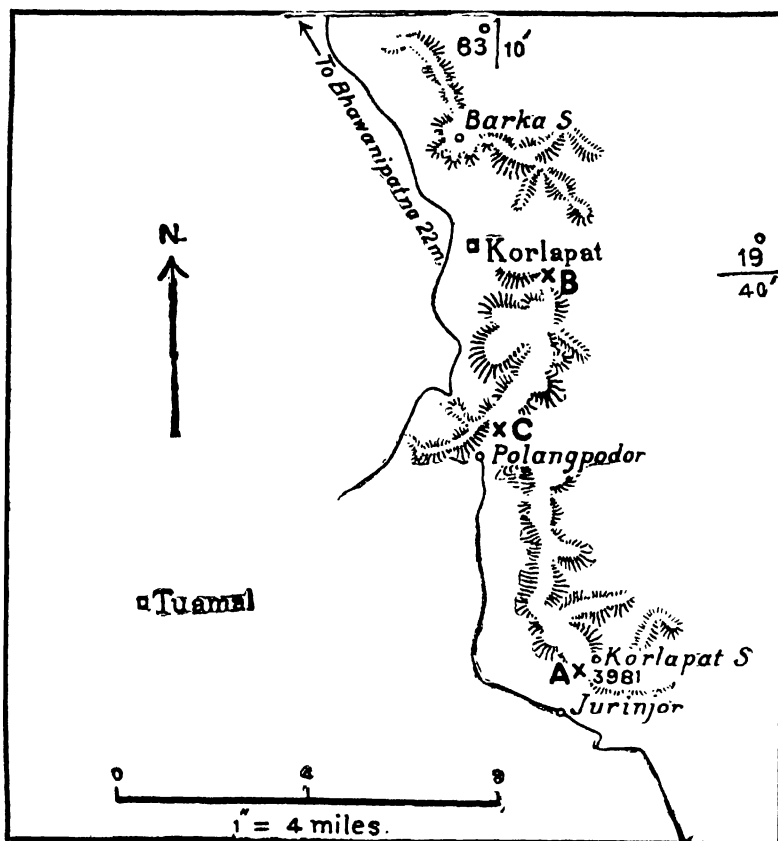
East of the village of Polangpodor (lat. 19° 37'; long. 83° 9' 30")

Bauxite.

the ferruginous laterite at the top of the western flank changes to a yellow material (reg. no. 35/392) at about ten feet lower down. It has

¹ *Mem., Geol. Surv. Ind., Vol. XXXIII, Pt. 3 (1903), pp. 8-11.*

a vertical thickness of 15 feet—i.e., 10 to 25 feet below the top—and a horizontal extent of about 450-500 feet. How far it extends into the body of the hill is not known, and at the corresponding position on the eastern flank there is no indication of similar material.



Below are given analyses of three specimens (A, B and C) taken from different parts of the hill, one of these being a sample of the yellow-coloured rock mentioned above; it will be seen that this is

bauxite of good quality. The analysis of the specimen collected by Walker is also added for comparison (Analysis D).

	A.	B.	C.	D.
Al ₂ O ₃	39.69	25.84	61.92	67.88
Fe ₂ O ₃	2.24	8.86	4.44	4.09
Si O ₂	45.14	53.93	2.30	0.93
Ti O ₂	trace	2.59	2.77	1.04
Ca O	1.07	0.16	0.09	0.36
Mg O	0.15	trace	trace	..
H ₂ O (at 106° C)	0.76	0.68	1.14	} 26.47
H ₂ O (above 106° C)	11.65	8.45	27.51	
TOTAL .	100.70	100.51	100.17	100.77

A. From the southern end of the Korlapat hill (reg. no. 35/42). Analyst M. S. Krishnan.

B. From the northern end of the Korlapat hill (reg. no. 35/35). Analyst M. S. Krishnan.

C. From the Korlapat hill, east of Polangpodor (reg. no. 35/392). Analyst M. S. Krishnan.

D. From the Korlapat hill (reg. no. 15/215). Analyst H. Warth (*Rec. Geol. Surv., Ind.*, Vol. XXXII, pt. 2 (1905), p. 179, Analysis L).

The streams flowing over the flanks and at the foot of the Korlapat hill give no indication of bauxite, transported or *in situ*, and there are no stream-courses on the top of the hill to reveal any vertical sections of the laterite. It appears therefore unlikely, except for the band east of Polangpodor, that there is any rich deposit of bauxite on this hill, so far as can be gathered from surface observations, and in the case of this band, its extent, richness, and variation of quality from place to place, can be decided only by carrying out regular prospecting operations.

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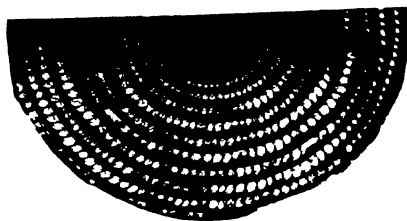
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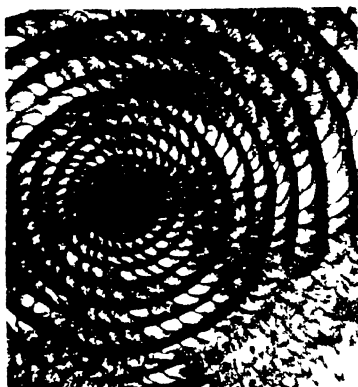
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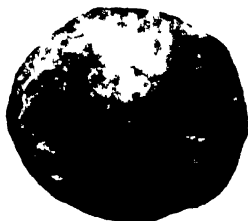
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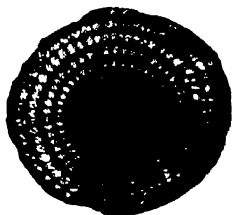
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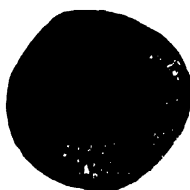
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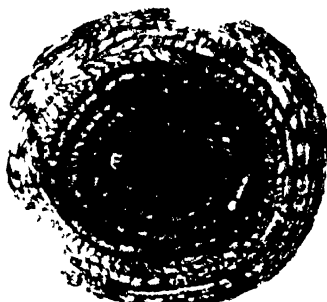
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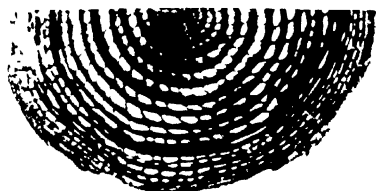
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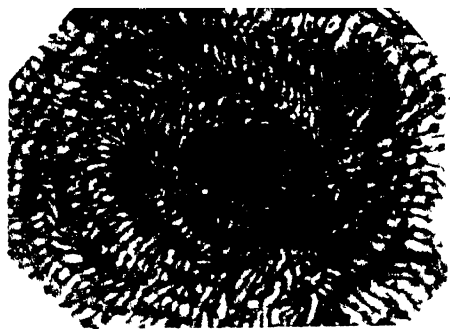
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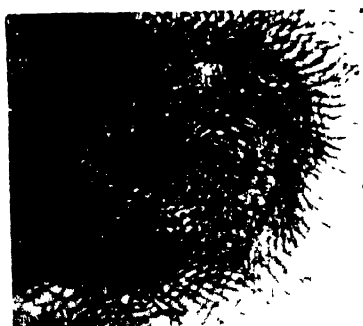
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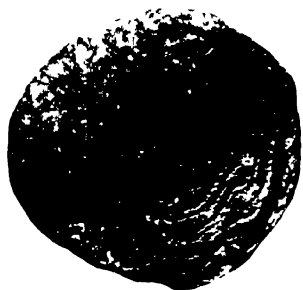
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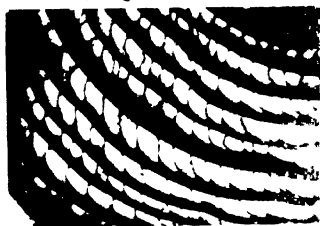
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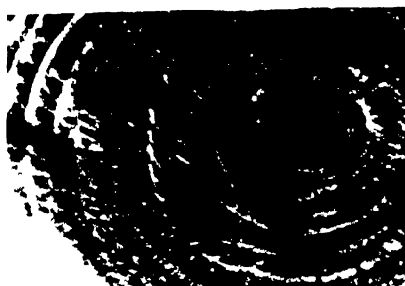
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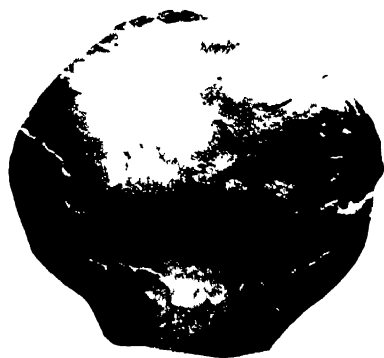
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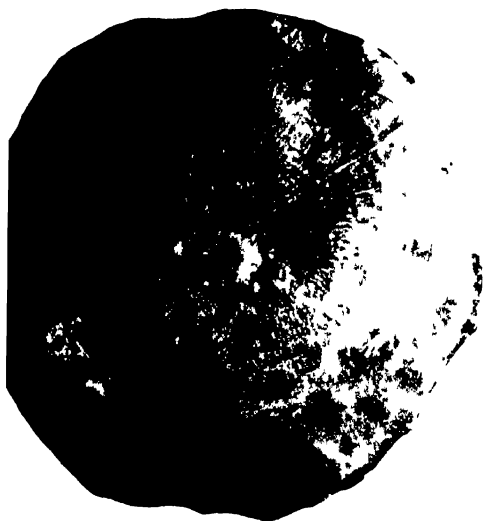
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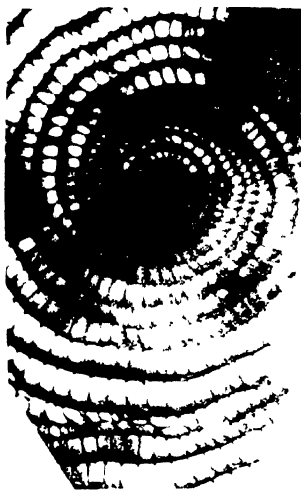
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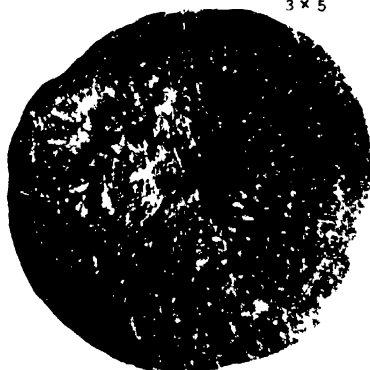
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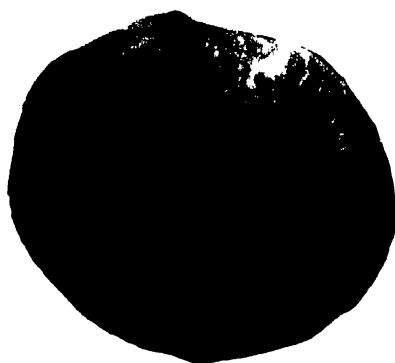
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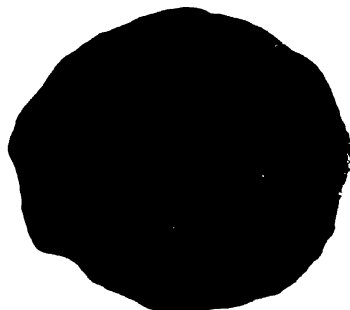
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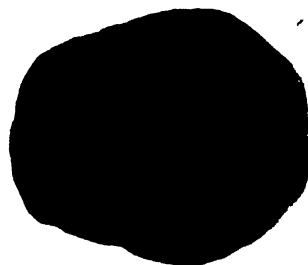
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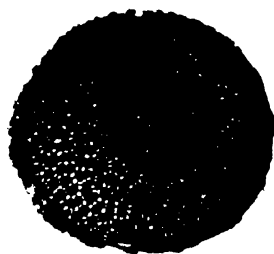
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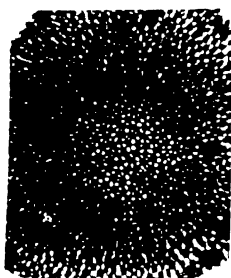
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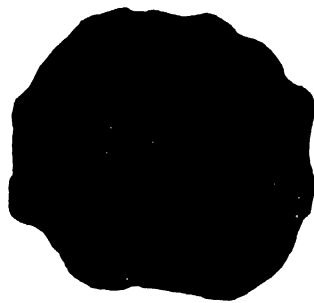
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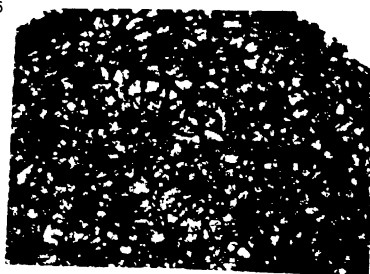
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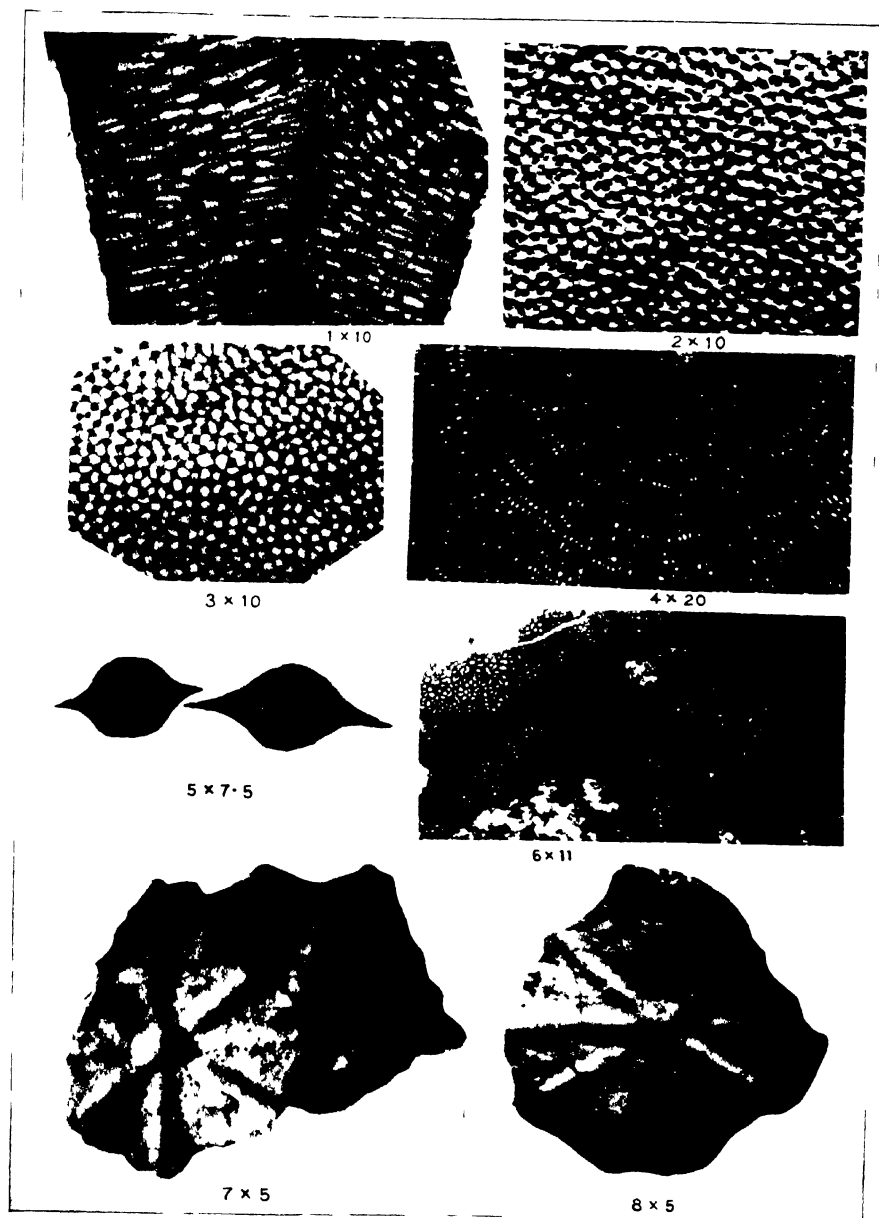


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SANDSTONE CLIFFS, WEST SIDE OF LITTLE ANDAMAN ISLAND.



FIG 1



FIG 2



FIG 3

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FIG 4.

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FIG 1



FIG 2



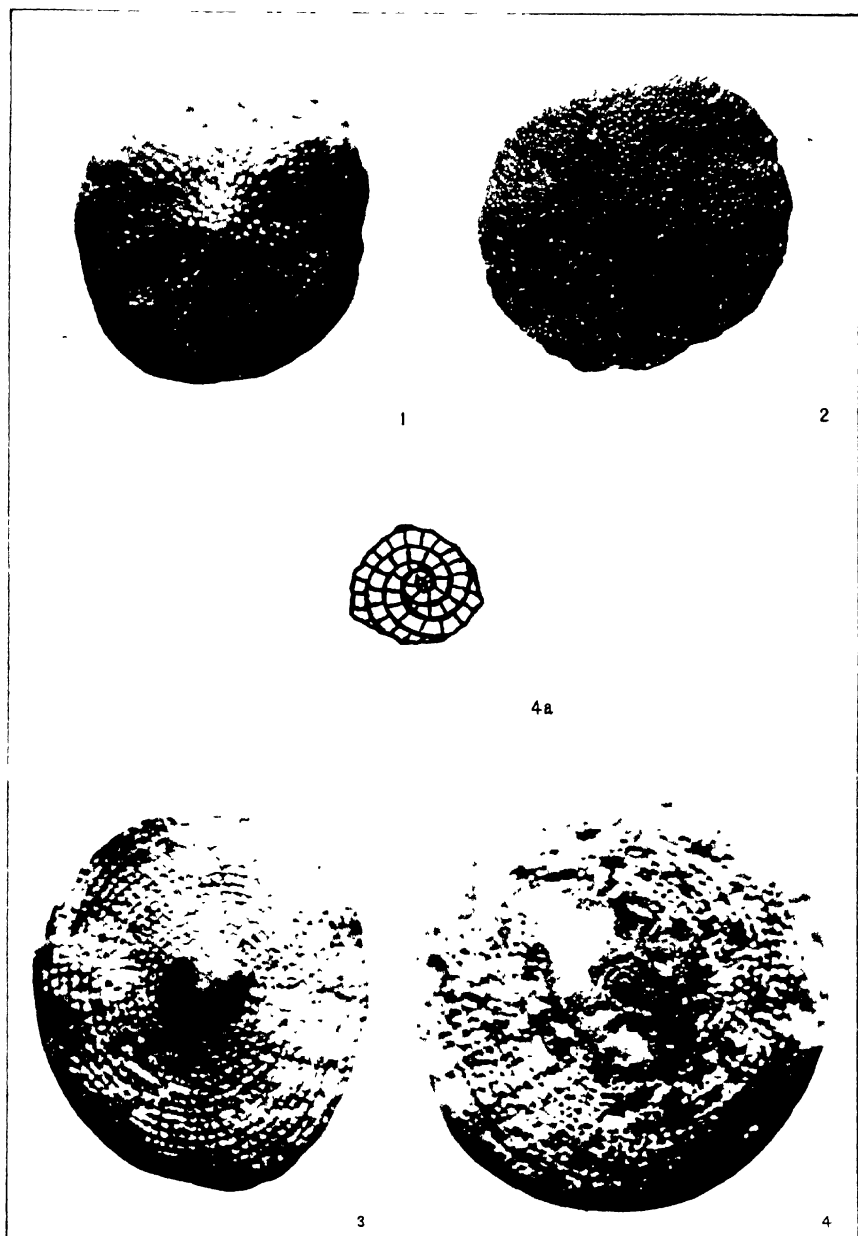
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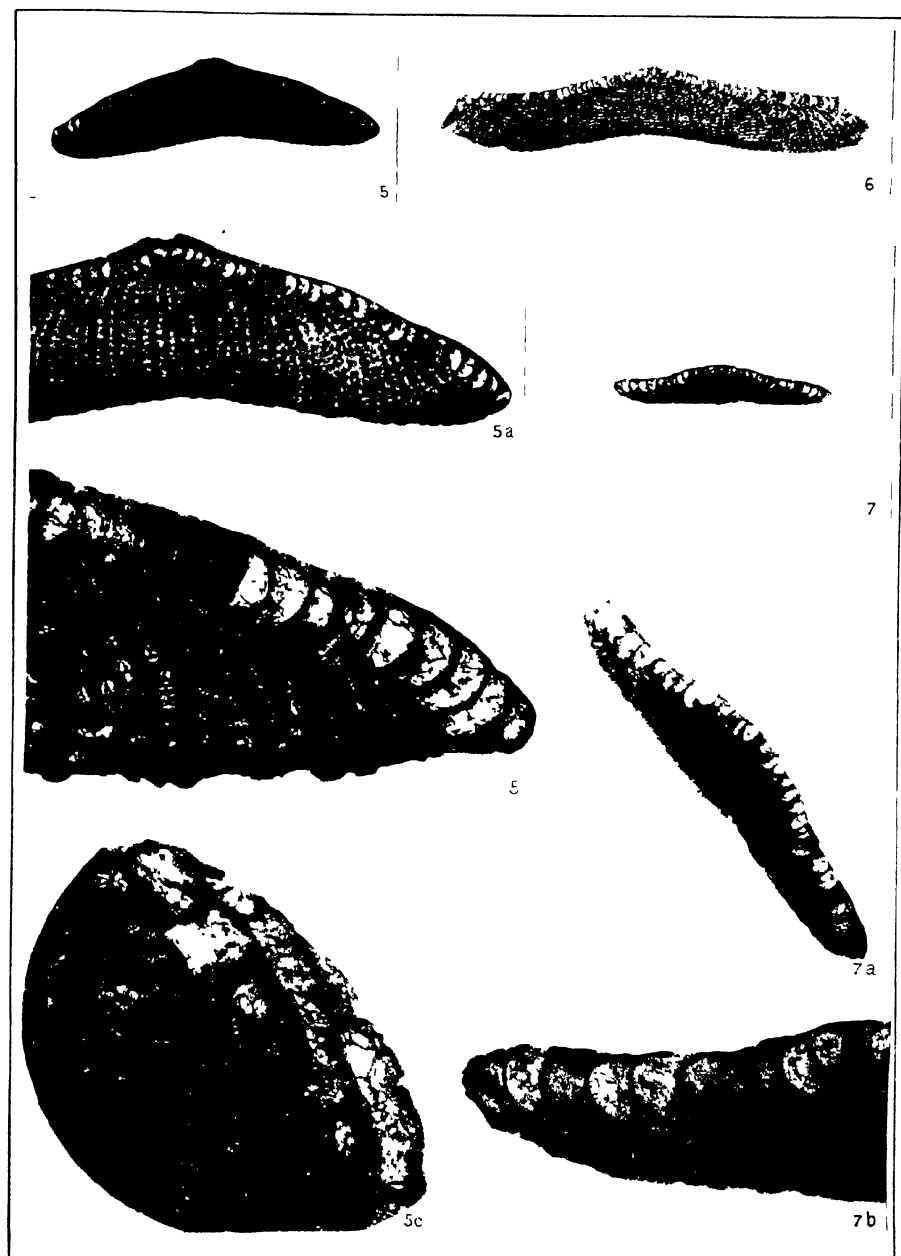
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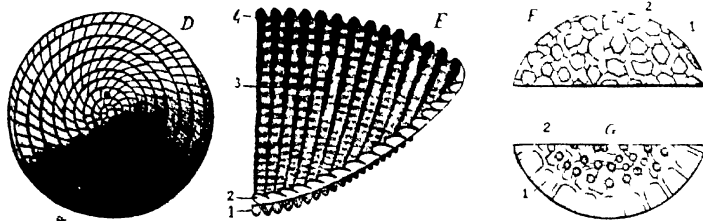
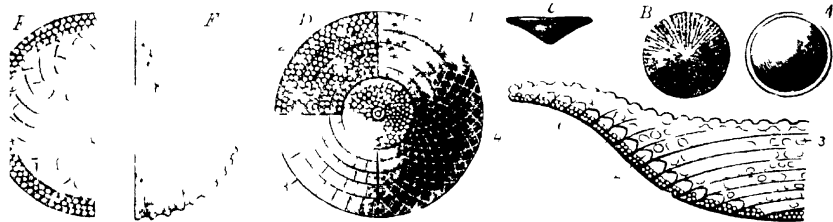


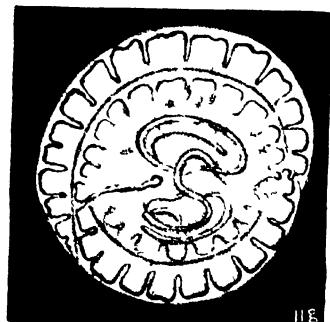
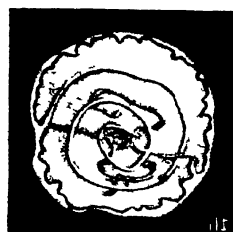
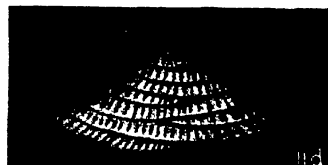
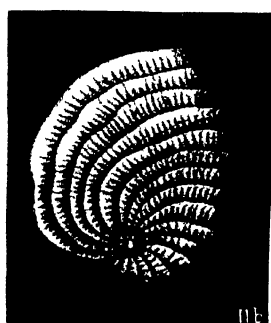
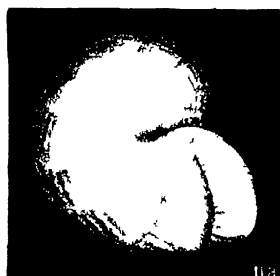
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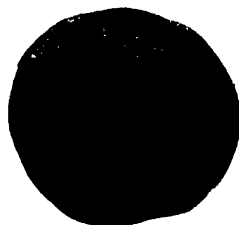
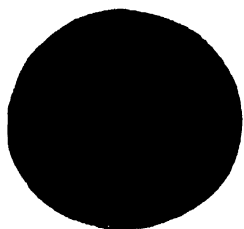
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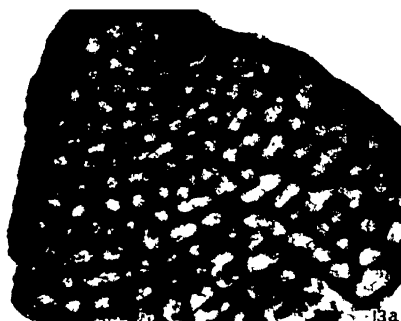




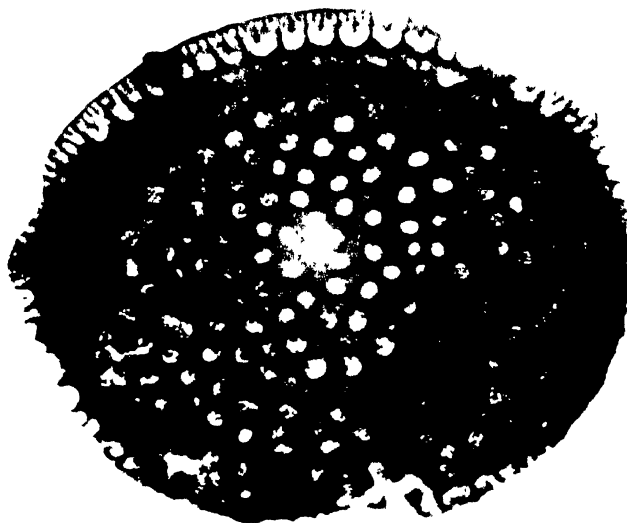
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13a



13b



FIG. 1. WEST END OF QUARTZITE RIDGE IN GORGE SOUTH OF UNDHANIA



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FIG. 2. GENERAL VIEW OF PANI MINE FROM THE NORTH-WEST.

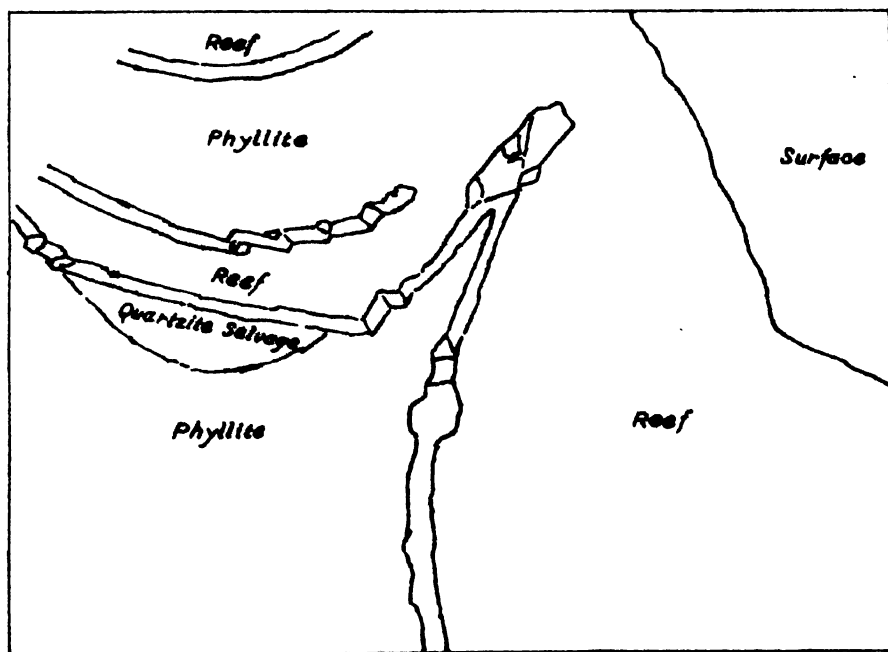
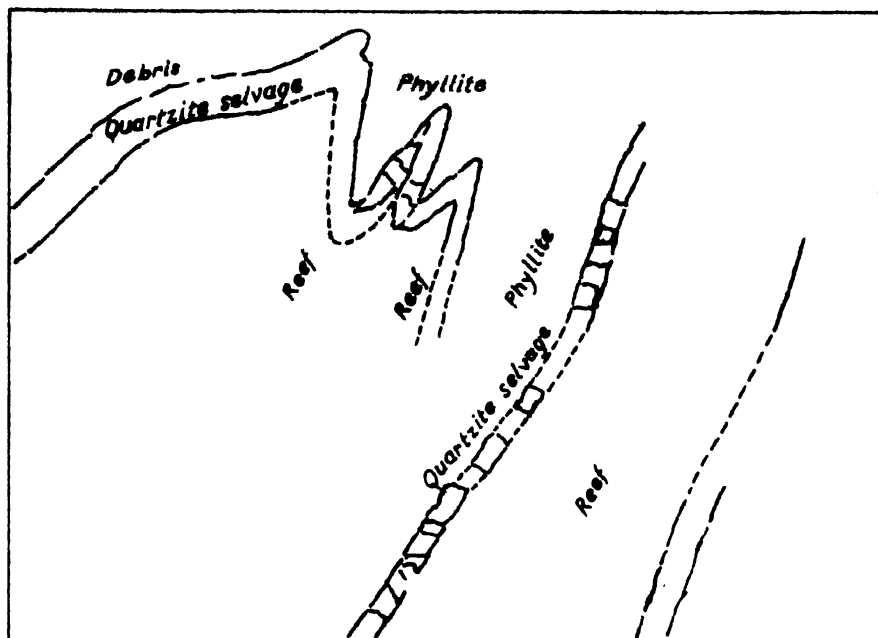
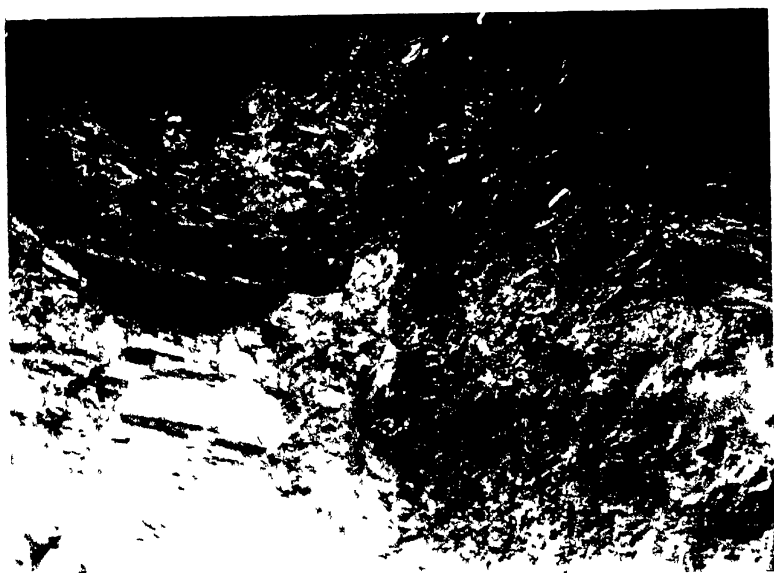




FIG. 1 FOLDING OF MANGANESE REEF AT E. END OF PANI MINE



G. S. I. Centre

G. S. I. Centre

FIG. 2 FOLDING OF MANGANESE REEF NEAR E. END OF PANI MINE

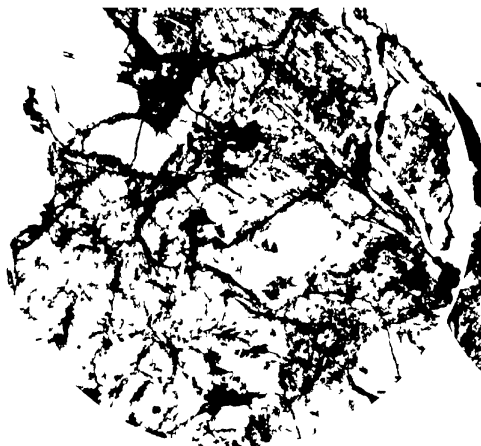


FIG 1 GRANITE DOLERITE HYBRID ROCK showing aggregates of secondary felspar needles in S W quadrant and secondary felspar fringes round original crystals in centre and N E quadrant X 33

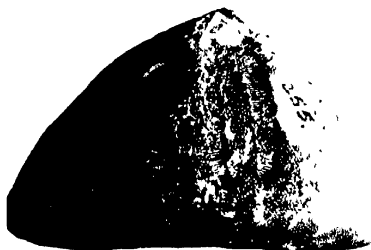


FIG 2 GRANITE DOLERITE HYBRID ROCK, nicols crossed. Showing secondary felspar fringes in optical continuity with original felspars X 93



G I H n / C C n s H f o s

FIG 3 SKETCH SECTION OF MANGANESE REEF AT EAST END OF PANI MINE



1



3



2



4



5

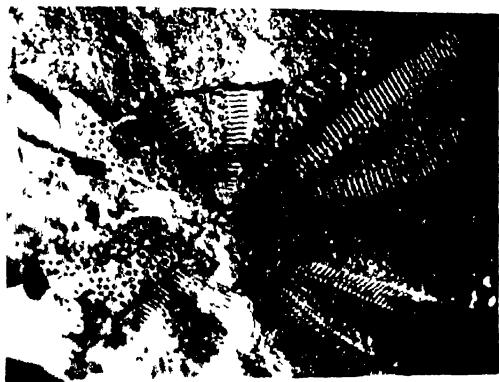


6

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CONOCLYPEUS.
(All half natural size)



1 $\frac{3}{2}$



2 Nat size.



3



4



5



6

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CONOCLYPEUS

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(All half natural size except figs 1 & 2)

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